

The copyright of this thesis vests in the author. No quotation from it or information derived from it is to be published without full acknowledgement of the source. The thesis is to be used for private study or non-commercial research purposes only.

Published by the University of Cape Town (UCT) in terms of the non-exclusive license granted to UCT by the author.

Exploring the Truth and Reconciliation Commission Report as a classroom resource

**By Jacqueline Kennedy
KNNJAC001**

**A minor dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements
for the award of the
Degree of Masters of Education, specialising in Applied Language Studies
Faculty of Humanities
School of Education
University of Cape Town**

2006

DECLARATION

This work has not been previously submitted in whole, or in part, for the award of any degree. It is my own work. Each significant contribution to, and quotation included in this dissertation from the work, or works, of other people has been attributed to, and has been cited and referenced.

SIGNATURE:

DATE:

ABSTRACT

The Truth and Reconciliation Commission (TRC) (1998) report is a five-volume record of the voices of many victims and perpetrators of apartheid giving evidence of their experiences and suffering. It is encoded in sophisticated and often complex English, largely inaccessible to its public South African readership, most of whom use English as a First, Second or even Third Additional language.

This study explores the nature and function of the discourse of the TRC Report as a contemporary historical text. The aim of this investigation is to establish the viability of introducing the TRC report into the classroom. It focuses on teenage learners. I examine the ability of Grade 10 and 11 English Primary Language and First Additional Language learners to read the original TRC text and a modified/simplified form of it.

After a preliminary pilot study to establish if the TRC was in fact readable and comprehensible for teenage learners, this research employed different readability measures to inform and shape the process of text simplification and /adaptation to meet required reading levels for Grade 10 and 11 learners. Readability of the original and modified texts were determined utilizing Discourse Analysis, Cloze Procedure, comprehension tests and the Flesch reading ease formula and the Flesch-Kincaid grade level score.

These measures indicated that the modified text was suitable for teenage learners but the results of the readability tests painted an entirely different picture. The learners tested under-performed; only 41.6% of their answers were correct. The study highlights that of these learners, 60% (56 out of 94) unequivocally wanted to know more about Contemporary History and Apartheid. But a far more alarming finding is that the literacy levels of those tested and observed were seriously below what they should be at Grade 10 and 11 levels.

The study concludes that the abandonment of task-focused reading skills development in favour of more social approaches to literacy may be an oversight.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to thank my supervisor, Professor Douglas Young who initiated the idea for this work. His guidance, suggestions, constructive criticism, encouragement and patience were invaluable.

I am indebted to the Centre for Applied Language and Literacy Studies and Services in Africa (CALLSSA) which provided financial support.

CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

1.1. RATIONALE

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Discourse Analysis

2.2. Critical Discourse Analysis

2.3. How can discourse analysis be applied to the reading of the TRC text?

2.4. Classroom Critical Discourse Analysis

2.5. Readability

2.5.1. Technicist Approaches

2.5.2. Social Approaches

2.6. Approach adopted for this research

2.7. Language Proficiency in English

2.8. Readability Tests

2.9. Cloze Procedure

CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

3.1. Research Design

3.2. Research Questions

3.2.1. Experience background

3.2.2. Vocabulary

3.2.3. Concepts

3.2.4. General Language development

3.2.5. Thinking abilities.

3.2.6. Word recognition and analysis

3.2.7. Discourse processing skills

3.3. Why Twelve to Fifteen-year-olds?

3.4. Methodology

3.4.1. Readability of the TRC Report

3.5. The Process

3.6. Cloze Procedure (Modified) – TRC REPORT

3.6.1. Testing Comprehension

3.6.2. The Readability Test

3.6.3.1. Flesch Reading Ease Formula

3.6.3.2. Flesch-Kincaid Grade Level score

3.7. How will I measure the outcomes and results?

CHAPTER 4: ANALYSIS OF RESULTS

4.1. Data Analysis: ORIGINAL TEXTS

4.2. Cloze Procedure: TEST AVERAGES

4.3. Did learners enjoy the exercise?

4.3.1. “Yes,” learners enjoyed the exercise.

4.3.2. “No,” learners did not enjoy the exercise.

4.4. Learners who found the exercise easy.

4.4.1. Learners experienced difficulty.

4.4.2. Learners thought the exercise was easy.

4.5. Data Analysis: Modified Texts

CHAPTER FIVE: INTERPRETATION OF RESULTS

CHAPTER SIX: CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

APPENDICES

BIBLIOGRAPHY

CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

1.1. Rationale

The South African Truth and Reconciliation Commission (TRC) was created after a period of conflict as a mechanism for sustaining a peaceful coexistence between past antagonists. It enabled the Apartheid regime to acknowledge human rights violations and it made provision for a state instituted mechanism, which was independently managed and controlled by civil society. Much of what transpired in this shameful period of our history was previously veiled in secrecy due to the Apartheid Government's control of the mass media and its ability to silence and oppress its opponents.

The objectives of the TRC were to address the legacy of the past by promoting national unity and reconciliation, to contribute to the healing of the South African nation. It had to do so, firstly, by developing as complete a picture as possible of the causes, nature and extent of the gross violations of human rights committed from 1 March 1960 to 10 May 1994, the day of President Mandela's inauguration. Secondly, it had to facilitate the granting of amnesty to persons who would make a full disclosure of all the facts relating to acts associated with a political objective. Thirdly, the TRC was required to establish and make known the whereabouts of victims, restore the human and civil dignity of survivors by giving them an opportunity to relate their own accounts of the violations they had suffered, and recommend appropriate reparations. Fourthly, the commission was obliged to compile a report detailing its activities and findings, and recommend measures to prevent future abuses (Villa-Vicencio and Verwoerd 2000: 22). The Truth and

Reconciliation Commission (TRC) Report is a five-volume record of the voices in evidence-giving of many of the victims and perpetrators of Apartheid. It is this report that attracted my attention and initiated this research. The report reveals the hidden information of the past and demands that our “false” history be rewritten. It requires that South African critically examines the half-truths and state manipulated memories, as they are difficult to sustain because of the revelations of the report. An example to illustrate this is the South African government’s repeated denials of the use of torture on detainees. The finding of the TRC clearly challenges this denial.

Knowledge and Condonation of torture

The TRC found that the government did nothing to stop or limit the use of torture. The government instead passed laws that made it impossible for courts to judge the guilty ones.

(Truth and Reconciliation Commission of South Africa Report.

Volume 2. Chapter 3: 220).

The report, encoded in sophisticated and often complex English, is largely inaccessible to its public South African readership, most of whom are English First or Second Additional language speakers. I explore the nature and function of the discourse of the TRC as contemporary historical text with the aim of using it as a classroom resource. The aim of this investigation is to establish the viability of introducing the Truth and Reconciliation report into the classroom. As an adult, I can relate to and recognise many of the narratives of the report but felt that my learners would not only struggle with the

language use but also had very little experience of Apartheid (TRC Report: Vol. 2). My 20 years experience as a teacher of English at secondary (FET) level, leads me to the conclusion that the text is too difficult for school learners to comprehend. Yet, I feel that the youth has a valuable role to play in the healing that this country requires and exposing them to the TRC report may be a step in this direction. In addition, the TRC report exhibits the important role played by the youth in the struggle for freedom. It therefore reveals that young people have the power to change unfair practices even if the odds are against them. I feel that every South African has a responsibility to ensure that the lessons of pain and suffering that inundate us daily are acknowledged and addressed. The TRC has initiated a process that must be carried forward. It is my contention that teenagers in South Africa must be exposed to this record of contemporary and social history of our country.

This record of contemporary history of South Africa should be made accessible to young learners, as it may give them the opportunity to challenge the misconceptions that were taught in schools in the past, due to state controlled access to information. Our new constitution and national education policy ensures that information will be accessible and that those in power will never again control it. Therefore, the false and distorted view of the past that was taught in schools has to be challenged and learners should be given access to it. Exploring the TRC report could be valuable as it is arguably imperative for teenagers to have a better sense of contemporary history, especially of apartheid in their context. The TRC affords them an excellent example of such history, but, it is too complex and unreadable for this target group of learners. Given the sophisticated

discourse, the intended readership or audience levels and the fact that it is worth using in the classroom, adapting or modifying it to suit their level and thereby making it more readable, may be valuable.

Introducing learners to the concept of human rights through the TRC report will display how human rights violations of the past shaped and informed our new constitution. It may give them an opportunity to recognize the injustices of the past and emphasise the significance of the TRC process in the development of South Africa. Unfortunately many teenagers, (15 year-olds) are out of touch with the realities of Apartheid because of their age. In 1994 they were three years old. The transformation of South Africa is far more relevant to them as it is within the realm of their experience. Through the TRC young learners can be given access to the life experiences of both perpetrators and victims and begin to understand the contexts these people found themselves in. It makes available to them not only the horrors of the past, but also the value of truth, forgiveness and reconciliation. Alternatively, it may illustrate that the TRC process was flawed and encourage them to question it. It may permit them to understand our country's development and by so doing, allow them to gain an appreciation for our ten years of democracy. My planned focus on the TRC will show them what young teenagers were faced with during Apartheid. The power of the youth and their contribution to the struggle against the Apartheid regime may inspire them to recognize injustices and encourage them to address it.

The foregoing leads me to pose my research question: Given that the Truth and Reconciliation (TRC) Report is written in sophisticated, academic English, should and can the TRC be adapted to the reading level/s of 15-16 year old English Additional Language learners to give them access to the TRC Report? The aim of this research therefore, is to establish the viability and appropriateness of introducing the Truth and Reconciliation Report into the classroom. The TRC report contains vital knowledge of the recent past, a history of the Apartheid era.

The TRC report clearly demonstrates that diverse voices are at work in the making of history. It reveals the concealed reality of decades of repression and violence. It does this by acknowledging that victims and perpetrators alike have contributions to make. It may allow learners to view history from the perspective of personal narratives. They will be given the opportunity to read multiple voices at work and it may encourage them to understand that different viewpoints of the same events are visible depending on ones perspective or context. As a record of the TRC, the report is a valuable resource. The reader has at her/his disposal a range of different sources of information pertaining to:

(SOURCE: TRC Report: Volume 1 and 2)

The motivation behind the TRC

Its composition and membership

Its relationship with the legal system

Similarities and differences to other processes internationally

The struggle against the Apartheid government

Human Rights violations

The major role players

Victims' accounts

Perpetrators' accounts

Patterns of abuse

Authorisations and accountability for abuse

Guilt and innocence

Impact on the families of victims and perpetrators

Impact on the TRC members, briefers, translators, etc

Understanding: Amnesty

Reconciliation

Truth and honesty

Healing

Full disclosure

Exemptions

The contribution of the TRC to building a new South Africa

(To name a few)

The research in this dissertation is largely about how to adapt or modify the text to ensure that the TRC Report will be readable to 15 year olds. My focus therefore, is to provide evidence on how and why it is readable at this level and how this research can be used as a basis for further such work.

The aim of this research is to:

1. Establish if the TRC report is comprehensible to teenage learners.
2. Explore what measuring strategies and structures exist to analyse the text.
3. Adapt or modify the text to suit the reading level of 15 year olds.
4. Establish if this adaptation inspires meaningful reading of the text.

Exploring the Truth and Reconciliation Commission Report as a classroom resource thus raises questions of how and why the TRC text can/should be made readable to teenage learners.

This dissertation is organized as follows:

- **In Chapter Two, I explore the theories and practices at my disposal to analyse the TRC text as an instance of textual discourse.**
- **Chapter Three explores my research plan and measuring instruments.**
- **Chapter Four is the analysis of the collected data.**
- **Chapter Five is an interpretation of the results.**
- **Chapter Six, in conclusion, explores the relevance and significance of this research and how it will influence further research.**

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

In order to analyse the TRC as a series of texts, I need an effective analytical scheme that will enable me to analyse, interpret and decode the text for the intended readership. My initial research points to discourse analysis as a broad analytical approach which meets the needs of my aims to make the language use more accessible to young learners. Discourse analysis in theory and practice has many forms, advocates, and a critical literature with which I will engage and review with the aim of developing for myself a theoretically sound approach to address my task/aims in this research. I therefore review the relevant theories of discourse analysis, from Harris to Gee/Fairclough *et al* and explore how the emergent theoretical base can be applied to the analysis and decoding of the TRC report.

The evolution of human communication has developed to display different shades of meaning. I therefore concur with Angelil-Carter and Murray (1996: 16), who advise one to allow *for the continual redefinition of discourse, continual reinterpretation, deconstruction and reconstruction*. I view discourse analysis as the study of the language of communication, spoken and written, and that communication is an interlocking social, cognitive and linguistic enterprise. To trace the development of Discourse Analysis, I focus on Structural Linguistics and mainstream Linguistics with the aim of illustrating the contribution made by linguistics to the advancement of Discourse Analysis and Critical Discourse Analysis.

For the purposes of this research, I view the TRC report as an instance of textual discourse. I therefore explore the different theories and practices available to analyse the TRC text as such, paying special attention to discourse analysis and critical discourse analysis. An analysis of the discourse at work in the TRC report will enable one to establish the degree of difficulty, which in turn, will inform the modification or adaptation of the text for classroom use.

2.1. Discourse Analysis

The theory and methodology of Critical Discourse Analysis are the result of historical development of Discourse Analysis as a component of linguistics as a discipline. Linguistics focused on syntax, working out the notion of super-phrasal unit, studying lexical and grammatical manifestations of connections between sentences in a coherent text. Mainstream linguistics developed the actual division of sentence, topic and focus. *Text grammar, text linguistics and discourse analysis* denoted a branch of linguistics dealing with the analysis of coherent texts. Coherence refers to the manner in which parts of texts can be meaningfully related to other parts, even in the absence of linguistic connectors. According to Catherine Wallace, it is possible to look at texts in three different ways; *“in terms of their formal features, that is, grammatical system used to link sentences and paragraphs; in terms of their propositional meaning, that is, how related ideas are expressed and related to each other; and in terms of their communicative function, that is, how sections of a text can be interpreted in relation to other sections and the function of the text as a whole.”* (Wallace 1992: 11).

Linguists were unable to account for sentences that were coherent but senseless. There was an emphasis on analysing how meaning is made possible by means of grammatical and semantic processes and how it is transmitted. This led to the differentiation between coherence and cohesion by researchers such as Halliday and Hasan (1966). Coherence refers to the way a group of clauses or sentences relate to the context (Halliday and Hasan 1976: 23). Cohesion refers to the way we relate or tie together bits of our discourse (Halliday and Hasan 1976: 4).

The early interest in systemic discourse analysis was essentially a descriptive and structuralist enterprise. Structuralism seeks to explain the structures underlying literary texts in terms of a grammar modelled on that language. Structuralists therefore believe that the meaning of each word depends on its place in the total system of language. One of the leading principles of structuralism is that the form defines the content. In structural approaches, discourse is viewed as a level of structure higher than the sentence (Cherryholmes 1988: 13). Early researchers include the structural linguist Zellig Harris (1951). He was perhaps the first linguist to refer to “discourse analysis”. He claimed that it extended the notion of linguistics to another level and that it was methodologically dependent upon lower-level structural analysis for the identification of higher level constituents. *Harris was interested in the distribution of linguistic elements in extended texts, and the links between the texts and its social situation* (Michael McCarthy 1993: 5). Critical to structural views of discourse is that discourse is comprised of units. Zellig Harris’ unit was the morpheme. The constituents of discourse were morphemes and morpheme sequences.

Transformations were developed by Harris as operations relating one set of formal phrases. He invented string analysis as a complement to immediate constituent analysis. He was responsible for transformational analysis in context of developing discourse analysis to get at the information content of texts (Schiffrin 1994: 24). This outline of discourse analysis is an attempt to account for discourse as a linguistic process.

Systemic discourse analysis involved indigenous or popular discourse genres, such as folktales, myths, and stories. The functionalist analysis of sentence and discourse structure, as well as the first attempts toward text linguistics, often took place independently of generative-transformational grammars (Teun Van Dijk 1985: 5).

*"Discussion of the development of modern linguistics often starts with the Swiss scholar, Ferdinand de Saussure (1857-1913) (Bloor 1995: 241). De Saussure argued that a language in general could never be fully explained, but that it can be perceived as either *langue* or *parole*. *Langue* refers to the inherited set of signs that is the language system. *Parole*, roughly is a reference to language use, one's use of the system. He argued that the focus of linguistic enquiry should be on *langue* and not *parole*. After the distinction by de Saussure between *langue* and *parole*, Noam Chomsky (1965) later developed the theoretical distinction between competence and performance and later, *I-language* (*internal*) and *E-language* (*external*). He distinguishes between linguistic *performance* – the actual use of language in concrete situations and linguistic *competence* – the native speaker's innate knowledge of his language. For Chomsky a theory of performance is secondary. In contrast, the focus of this research is on performance, since discourse is*

performance. Chomsky has no interest in the social aspect of language, but views language as essentially a biologically determined phenomenon. He argued that an adequate account of linguistic performance is impossible until we understand the nature of competence, the linguistic system which the native speaker learned as a child and which he draws upon when using language. The study of sentences in any language reveals that there are two aspects to their syntactic structure. They consist of a surface structure which is directly related to the phonetic form of the utterance and a hidden, deep structure that is necessary for its interpretation.

Hymes (1971) questioned Chomsky's differentiation of performance and competence and is critical about his focus on competence; he therefore argues for a concentration on performance. His interest in how different language patterns shape different patterns of thought places him at odds with Chomsky. His opposition stems from his premise that one applies not only grammatical rules of a language to form correct utterances but one also has to know when to use these utterances appropriately. The seven features of discourse proposed by Hymes (1974) provide a framework which sets out his theory of communicative competence. The features are setting, purpose, participants, key, channels, message content and message form. Based on this idea, Canale and Swain (1980) argue that communicative competence consists of four components: Grammatical competence: words and rules; Sociolinguistic competence: appropriateness; Discourse competence: cohesion and coherence, and Strategic competence: appropriate use of communication strategies. It is arguably Hymes' theory that forms the foundation for CDA and argues that well formed structure is not enough to analyse text but that one has

to establish appropriacy. Hymes' notion of communicative competence will inform the decision to introduce the learners to the TRC report, and he warns that you should question whether it is appropriate to take the TRC text into the classroom in its present form. The appropriacy of the TRC text has to be established to determine if learners at this level can read and comprehend it effectively.

Finally Hymes believes that all narratives are organized around implicit principles of form, which convey important knowledge and ways of thinking and of viewing the world. He argues that understanding narratives will lead to a fuller understanding of language itself and those fields informed by story telling (Gaalswyk, Greg 2001). Essentially the TRC process acknowledged the personal narratives of the participants.

Halliday rejects the differentiation between competence and performance because of his interest in language and communication (Halliday 1978: 38). For him meaning is at the heart of everything in language, whereas Chomsky claims that form shapes meaning. Halliday sees language as a 'system of meanings' and therefore grammar is the study of how meaning is built up through the use of words and other linguistic forms such as tone and emphasis (Bloor 1995: 1). He recognises language and use as central features of language and tackles grammar from this point of departure. Therefore, Halliday's grammar is semantic and functional as it is concerned with meaning and with how language is used. For him a language consists of a set of systems, each of which offers the speaker (or writer) a choice of ways of expressing meaning. Systemic linguistics starts at social context and looks at how language acts upon and is constrained by social

context. Appropriacy for Hymes can perhaps be equated with register for Halliday. He identifies three variables that determine register: field, tenor and mode. This is important when one focuses on the TRC text. Field refers to the subject matter of the discourse, tenor, to the participants and their relationship and mode, to the channel of communication. It is from these beginnings that CDA developed into the form that exists today.

Fairclough bases many of his ideas on the fact that language is socially constitutive as well as socially determined and CDA investigates this tension. He bases his ideas on Halliday's functional-systemic linguistics that posits that every text has an 'ideational' function through its representation of experience and representation of the world. Texts produce social interactions between participants in discourse and therefore also display an 'interpersonal' function. Texts also have a 'textual' function (Fairclough 1995: 6). This illustrates how appropriacy of Hymes and register of Halliday contribute to CDA advocated by Fairclough, who sees discourse as an element of all social process, events and practices. Each of these levels has a linguistic/semiotic element: languages, (social structures), orders of discourse (social practices), and texts, as broadly understood social events (Chouliaraki & Fairclough 2004).

The term, discourse, within linguistics, *signifies a turning away from sentences as exemplars of usage in the abstract...* (Sara Mills 1997: 9). It heralded a movement away from how language is structured as a system, to a concern with language in use. Discourse describes a structure, which extends beyond the boundaries of a sentence.

Using the analogy of sentence structure and its internal constituents: subject, verb, object, or noun, verb, complement, there is an assumption that elements above the level of the sentence contain similar structures. The emphasis shifted to longer texts and utterances, an extended piece of text, which has some form of internal organization, coherence or cohesion.

Van Dijk (1977, 1985), Beaugrande and Dressler (1981), and Brown and Yule (1983), focused on developing a relationship between the choice of lexico-grammar and specific forms of discourse organization that can be viewed as an extension of linguistic description. Their emphasis was on coherence and cohesion, macro-structures and information structures of discourse which they pursued through semantics and pragmatics. Widdowson (1973) focused on *rhetorical structures in scientific discourse*, Van Dijk (1988) used *schematic structures to analyse news reports* and Coulthard (1977) and Hoey (1983) focused on *patterns of organization* across discourse types and genres (Bhatia 2004: 9). These discourse analysts focused on language use in context. Therefore, for discourse analysis, the emphasis is on social and cognitive aspects.

Susan Florio-Ruane and Ernest Morrel (2004: 47) argue, that “*discourse is social as well as linguistic*”. They claim that it is a way of behaving and making sense, which includes language code, use of written words, social norms and values, and practices.

Norman Fairclough asserts that the insights of linguistics should be turned into comprehensible and usable forms. He argues that a detailed textual analysis strengthens discourse analysis. He identifies a textual analysis as a linguistic analysis and an intertextual analysis as meanings which are never in isolation but draw on meaning and contexts in other texts.

He contends that a linguistic analysis refers to the traditional levels within linguistics like: phonology; grammar up to the level of the sentence; and vocabulary and semantics in addition to an analysis of textual organisation above the sentence. This includes cohesion between sentences and the structure of texts. He asserts the following as proof for this claim.

- *Intertextual properties of text are realised in its linguistic features.*
- *Texts act as sources of evidence for claims about social structures, relations and processes.*
- *Texts are good indicators of social change.*
- *It is through texts that social control and dominance are exercised, negotiated and resisted.*
- *Systematic-functional linguistics (theory of language) approach to studying grammar and other aspects of language is a functional one.*
- *It is systematically orientated to studying the relationship between the texture of texts and their social contexts.*
- *It allows not only for an analysis of what is in texts but also what is absent or omitted from texts.*

- *A systematic view of texts emphasises choice, which entails inclusion as well as exclusion.* (Fairclough, Jaworski and Coupland (Eds) 2000: 183-211).

He argues for the inclusion of a stronger orientation to context within textual linguistics. He believes that intertextual analysis has an important role in linking text to context. This would draw attention to the discursive processes of text producers and interpreters, and how they draw upon the genres and discourses available to them. His three-dimensional view of discourse and discourse analysis can assist in the attempt to strengthen the link of text to context.

- the analysis of context
- the analysis of processes of texts production and interpretation and
- the analysis of text. (Fairclough, Jaworski and Coupland (Eds) 2000: 183-211).

Discourse has a linguistic, a social, and a political component. It is an institutional system which constructs social subjects, social relations and knowledge, and transmits power relationships. Meaning is not fixed but constructed and negotiated between participants. Discourse Analysis is the examination of language use by members of a speech community. It involves looking at both language form and language function and includes the study of both spoken and written texts. It identifies both linguistic features that characterise different genres as well as social and cultural factors that aid in our interpretation and understanding of different texts and types of talk. Vijay K. Bhatia's definition of discourse analysis as a general term demonstrates all that it can be.

"Discourse Analysis ... can focus on lexico-grammatical and other textual properties, on regularities of organization of language use, on situated language use in institutional, professional or organizational contexts, or on language use in a variety of broadly configured social contexts, often highlighting social relations and identities, power asymmetry and social struggle." (Bhatia 2004: 3).

More recent work by Martin and Rose (2003) concentrates on social discourse. They identify social activity as meaning negotiated through texts. They interpret social discourse by analysing it. Therefore, their point of departure for interpreting social discourse, is with texts in social contexts. They focus on meaning beyond the clause and therefore do not treat discourse as merely a sequence of clauses. They look at meaning in texts rather than meaning in the clause. They base their theory of language on the model of language in social contexts that has been developed in the field of systemic functional linguistics, whose main focus has been on the semantics of discourse. From this perspective they firstly, rely on this models theory of the *strata of language* which contends that three levels of language are visible, that is; *language as grammar, as discourse, and as social context*. Secondly, the theory of *metafunctions* which contends that there are three general functions of language in social contexts, that is; *to enact our relationships, to represent our experiences, and to organize discourse as meaningful text* (Martin and Rose 2003: 1).

To distinguish between Discourse Analysis (DA) and Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA), one has to determine where meaning resides. DA is a search for literal, social and contextual meaning within the framework of linguistic structures and rules, whereas CDA seeks to explore social meaning, hidden meaning and power relations between the readers and writers. Wodak (1996: 17-20) argues that CDA is concerned with the linguistic character of social and cultural processes and structures, since society and culture are shaped by discourse while constituting discourse. CDA is concerned with power, both power within discourse and power over discourse, and the power discourse has over its readers, and therefore, society. Therefore, language use reproduces and transforms society and culture, including power relations. She argues that discourses are not only embedded in a particular culture, ideology or history, but are also connected intertextually to other discourses. She maintains that discourse is interpretative and explanatory since it is a form of social behaviour. Hence, "*CDA is understood as a social scientific discipline which makes its interests explicit and prefers to apply discoveries to practical questions*" (Titscher, Meyer, Wodak and Vetter 2000: 146). It is therefore necessary to analyse texts to investigate their interpretation, reception and social effects. It is these hidden meanings that I must take cognisance of when focusing on the Truth and Reconciliation Report to make sure they are not lost when transforming the text.

2.2. Critical Discourse Analysis

A discursive struggle exists as the main exponents illustrate in their different analytical strategies of discourse. Michel Foucault argues that institutions and social groupings have specific meanings and values, which are articulated in language in systematic ways. He refers to these systematically organised modes of talking as discourse. Discourse, as defined by Foucault, refers to:

Ways of constituting knowledge, together with the social practices, forms of subjectivity and power relations which adhere in such knowledge and relations between them. Discourses are more than ways of thinking and producing meaning. They constitute the “nature” of the body, unconscious and conscious mind and emotional life of the subjects they seek to govern (Weedon 1987: 108).

Foucault's view is that knowledge is inextricably linked to power. He argues that specific discourses have been shaped and created by knowledge systems that have gained the status and currency of 'truth'. These 'truths' dominate how we define ourselves within our social world while alternative discourses are marginalised. These alternative discourses, according to Foucault, offer sites where dominant practices can be contested, challenged or resisted. He developed the concept of a “discursive field” in an attempt to understand the relationship between language, social institutions, subjectivity and power. His focus on the link between knowledge and power displayed that different discourses emerge at different periods in history. He therefore suggests that discourses change over

time to serve powerful interests. He theorises that we can only communicate through language, which are the rules of the discourses available to us, and these rules are not explicit. Therefore, through discourse analysis, we attempt to uncover these rules and the power behind the discourse, because meanings are constructed between participants. Crucial to his theory is the idea that discourse is realised through language as discourse defines, constructs and positions people. Foucault's work proved a framework for describing how educational texts construct children, teachers, students and human subjects in different relations of power and knowledge.

Gee, on the other hand, sees discourse as an *identity kit*, which allows for one to take on a particular social role. Since we are all equipped with several discourses, we draw on the one that others, within the social group will recognise (Gee 1990: 142). Gee sees people as either insiders or outsiders. One can only be part a discourse if one is fluent in that discourse. Gee argues that one is able to work within the rules of discourse but unable to challenge these rules themselves. Therefore, based on Gee's theory, the learners will struggle with the TRC report as they were never the intended audience. They are not part of the discourse and are therefore considered outsiders. Because they are not fluent in it, they are unable to challenge it. Gee (1990) defines literacy as social practice and makes the distinction between institutional and social literacies, arguing that some literacies are more valued than others, which disadvantages some groups. His Discourse (with capital 'D') intimates that the exclusive character of the TRC process, and the final report, with its lack of shared language, will, as a result, exclude these learners as they will not be able to participate.

For Gee, a *Discourse* is a socially accepted association about ways of using language, other symbolic expressions, and 'artefacts', of thinking, feeling believing, valuing and acting that can be used to identify oneself as a member of a socially meaningful group or 'social network', or to signal (that one is playing) a socially meaningful 'role' (emphasis by Gee) (Gee 1996: 131). Gee (1996) defines literacy in relation to Discourses. Discourses are socially recognised ways of using language (reading, writing, speaking, listening), gestures and other semiotics (images, sounds, graphics, signs, codes), as well as ways of thinking, believing, feeling, valuing, acting/doing and interacting in relation to people and things, such that we can be identified and recognised as being a member of a socially meaningful group, or as playing a socially meaningful role. Language is a dimension of Discourse, but only one dimension, and Gee uses discourse (with a small 'd') to mark this relationship.

Critical Discourse Analysis is a commitment to go beyond linguistic descriptions and to show how social inequalities are reflected, created and challenged in language. It is an attempt to change the inequalities Discourse Analysis uncovers. Brown and Yule (1983: 1) define discourse analysis as *the analysis of language in use*. Discourse analysis is concerned with *the study of the relationship between language and the contexts in which it is used* (McCarthy 1991: 5). Cook suggests that discourse is *language in use, for communication* and therefore discourse analysis is *the search for what gives discourse coherence* (Cook 1989: 6). Hatch sees discourse analysis as *the study of the language of*

communication – spoken or written. These theorists did not give the power dimension much emphasis.

Cohesion, according to Halliday and Hasan, (1976: 4) occurs where the interpretation of some element in the discourse is dependent on that of another. The one presupposes the other and therefore, decoding is only possible with reference to it. This sets up a relation of cohesion. “*Cohesion refers to the linguistic means whereby a text is enabled to function as a single meaningful unit*” (Halliday and Hasan 1976: 30). They identify two categories of cohesive devices; grammatical and lexical. Grammatical: reference, substitution, ellipsis, and conjunctions. Lexical: reiteration (synonyms and hypernyms and collocations (Halliday and Hasan 1976: 24).

Discourse, for Fairclough (1989: 17), is *language as social practice*, so, for him, language use is a social act in itself and these acts are determined and given meaning by the larger social and ideological conditions of society. For Fairclough, a theory of discourse implies a theory of society, which in turn is a theory of power, legitimacy, and authority. Therefore social equalities are reflected and created in language.

Kress (1990: 85) suggests that critical discourse focuses critically on texts and their contexts. Thus language is seen as a social practice, texts as social products, and meanings as products. Speakers are located differently within socio-political relations. Therefore an analysis cannot ignore social power, history and ideology to understand meaning. Kress postulates that language is essentially a social process and that all social

interactions involve a display of power. Therefore texts are instruments of social reproduction, which are embedded in social institutions and processes. In this process readers and writers are social agents located in a particular network of social relations, in specific places in a social structure. Susan Florio-Ruane and Ernest Morrel (2004: 55) argue, that discourses do not exist in a vacuum, "*but are in constant conflict with other discourses and other social practices which inform them over questions of truth and authority*". This is evident in the Truth and Reconciliation Report.

2.3. How can discourse analysis be applied to the reading of the TRC text?

The report of the Truth and Reconciliation Commission (TRC) is a record of the TRC process. It documents the important aspects of the contemporary and social history of South Africa. The report itself is intended to reach the general public to make them aware of the gross human rights violations of our apartheid past and aims to prevent its reoccurrence. As a result, the TRC report is part of a larger discourse practice at work in South Africa. It is an attempt to build bridges where none existed to promote national unity. It operates from the premise that South Africans must acknowledge and address their past before it is possible to embark on a new democratic dispensation.

The text originates from the Truth and Reconciliation Commission and therefore has an institutional purpose. It operates in particular political interest to sustain relations of domination and power. Luke further postulates that texts construct social relationships of power between the reader and the text (Luke 1995: 17-18). Kress (1989) concurs that

texts construct *subject positions* and *reading positions*. This is difficult to establish as the TRC operates in a transitional situation and power relations are blurred, developing, emerging, and in a process of transformation.

The objective of the TRC was to address the legacy of the past by promoting national unity and reconciliation, to contribute to the healing of a divided South Africa.

- * It had to develop a clear picture of the causes, nature and extent of gross human rights violations committed from March 1960 to May 1994.
- * It had to facilitate the granting of amnesty to persons prepared to make full disclosures.
- * It was required to establish and make known the whereabouts of victims, restore human and civil dignity of survivors and recommend appropriate reparations.
- * **The Commission was obliged to compile a report detailing its activities and findings as a measure to prevent future abuses.**

The final text is the result of a range of transformations. The public hearings included the verbal utterances of the victims, perpetrators and commissioners. The text also draws from the submissions, investigation and a range of source documents. This was obviously also influenced by translations and the work of interpreters. The final product therefore is very different to the original form in which statements were presented. One may be justified to surmise that some people may find it difficult to find their own stories, experiences and narratives in the report. I look at the differences between a participant's submission to the TRC and the final entry in the text.

The narratives in the report reflected on the lives of all South Africans; some may find it difficult to identify their own stories because of the language it is encoded in. The example of Ms Jacobs that follows illustrates this. I include an example of Ms Jacob's original statements to the TRC pertaining to the Trojan Horse Incident and the final inclusion in the text (TRC report) to demonstrate the significant difference between the two. My argument is that people, who appeared before the commission, may find it difficult to identify their contribution, in this case the Human Rights Violations Hearings in Cape Town, because of the language the TRC writers chose to use.

TRC: Human Rights Violations: Event Hearings Transcripts: 1997

20-21 May 1997 and 2 June 1997: Cape Town

MS JACOBS: He was very young and on a particular day we found him, he was a street child, he did not have parents. He always came to my mother to ask for a little bit of bread. We always gave him some bread and then he began to stay with us until he eventually found work. On the day of his death, he went to work on that Tuesday. He had an argument at work with one of the men who worked with him. He then had to go to hospital, to the day hospital and then he returned that Tuesday.

He said that he was experiencing pain, my mother said to me he has to go and lie down. He went to lie down, or rather, we thought that he went to lie down, but in fact he did not. Two or three hours later, we had a, we called him the dog, the children then came and said that the dog has died. My mother and I said that's not possible, he's lying down. Then when we went to see if he was lying down, we could not find him. We then went to the police station. Two men came to us and said to us that we had to go to the police station. My mother was not willing to go, I was not willing to go. Eventually I went. When I arrived at the police station to go and find out what was happening, one of the policemen was very rude to me. He said to me: "Who are you coming for?" and I said I'm coming for Jonathan Claasen, I'd heard that he was shot. There were two men from U.D.F. along with me. And then he said to me, and I must apologise for saying this, "The pig has died because of throwing stones, do you agree with me bushman?" I then said to him – Sir I don't know I did not go along with him, I was not present at the place where he was shot. They then made me to sign a document which said that I would collect the body and there would only be fifty people allowed at the wake or at the funeral. I signed these papers, we identified him at the morgue and we collected him the next morning.

There was blood on his face, running down into his neck. That is all.

University of Cape Town

The Trojan Horse and other ambush tactics

167 During late 1985 and early 1986, security force members sometimes adopted ambush tactics against street protestors and others by concealing themselves either in a moving vehicle or at the scene. In each instance, police opened fire without warning, causing deaths and injuries. Those killed or injured were frequently merely curious bystanders. In at least two of the cases quoted below, the victims were youth and women only. The best known of these cases is the 'Trojan Horse' shooting. However, other cases came to light through the work of the Commission.¹⁴

168 In the Athlone 'Trojan Horse' incident on 15 October 1985, police hiding in large wooden crates on the back of a railway truck fired directly into a crowd of about a hundred people who had gathered around a Thornton Road intersection, killing Michael Cheslyn Miranda (11) [CT00478, CT00472], Shaun Magmoed (16) [CT00472] and Mr Jonathan Claasen (21) [CT00475] and injuring several others, eight of whom submitted statements to the Commission.

169 The event attracted extensive media coverage since several members of the print and electronic media were at the scene and the shooting was captured on video. This placed the actions of the police under intense scrutiny of the local and international media.

170 This operation was repeated the following day when security force personnel drove down a road opposite Crossroads in the same truck. They shot and killed Mr Goodman Mengxane Mali (19) [CT00723] and Mr Mabhoti Alfred Vetman (20). Two toddlers were also injured in the shooting.

171 The Athlone Trojan Horse shooting highlights the role of the Western Province Joint Management Centre in the region, and its sub-JMC which covered the Peninsula. These structures had established a JOC which met daily at the Manenberg Police station to co-ordinate the activities of the security forces in areas identified as unrest 'flashpoints'. It brought together the command structures of the SAP, the SARP, the SADF and various other agencies. Information was collected by the Joint Intelligence Committee (JIC) and the Security Committee (SECCOM) of the Joint Management Centre.

172 A memorandum sent to the JMCs directly concerned with planning action against the unrest gives specific plans for security force actions against 'agitators'. The document states that "the fight

against unrest can only be won if problems are foreseen and stopped through pro-active actions". It calls for creative ways and methods to mislead or confuse "agitators" or to lay waste to their plans before they begin.

173 Colonel Pieter Janse van Rensburg (Head of Western Province Riot Squad), Major Christian Loedolff (SARP) and Commandant Salmon Pienaar (SADF) were amongst those who decided on and tasked the ten members of the SARP task force (under Lieutenant Douw Vermeulen) to obtain a railway vehicle and conduct the first Trojan Horse operation.

THE COMMISSION HAS CONSIDERED THE FOLLOWING:

- THE FACT THAT THIS ACTION WAS PREMEDITATED AND WAS THE RESULT OF ORDERS HANDED DOWN FROM LIEUTENANT VERMEULEN'S IMMEDIATE COMMANDING OFFICER IN THE MANENBERG JOINT OPERATIONAL CENTRE, THE THEN MAJOR LOEDOLFF;
- THAT ALL THE WEAPONS USED IN THE OPERATION WERE LOADED WITH SHARP AMMUNITION, IN VIOLATION OF ESTABLISHED PROCEDURES;
- THAT THERE WAS AN EFFECTIVE COMMUNICATION SET UP BETWEEN THE PERSONS IN THE FRONT OF THE TRUCK AND THE BACK AND THAT THERE WAS COMMUNICATION WITH THE JOC;
- THE PREPONDERANCE OF CHILDREN, YOUTH AND WOMEN AMONGST THOSE SHOT.

THE COMMISSION FINDS THAT THE THIRTEEN SENIOR AND JUNIOR MEMBERS OF THE SAP, SADF AND SARP, IN CONJUNCTION WITH THE RELEVANT STRUCTURES OF THE JMCS, PLANNED AND EXECUTED AN ACTION IN ATHLONE WHICH RESULTED IN SEVERAL GROSS VIOLATIONS OF HUMAN RIGHTS.

174 Six months after the Athlone incident, on 26 March 1986, security forces concealed in a railway truck shot dead three people near Crossroads, namely Mr Lennox Thabang Maphalane [CT00706], Mr Eric Heynes [CT00824] and Mr Goodman Bongani Dastile.¹⁵ Several others were injured. The inquest listed some of the same individuals involved in the Athlone shooting.

175 In a similar incident in February 1986 in Khayelitsha, members of the security forces disguised as ordinary workers in a bakkie

fired on members of the public with birdshot according to the statement by Mr Thanduxolo Cingo [CT00739].

176 On 29 August 1985, Riot Unit members Constable E Villet and Warrant Officer P Kruger hid in the garden of a Bellville South house on the orders of Captain Ockert van Schalkwyk. They later leapt out from this 'observation point' and fired at a group of people. Ms Sarah van Wyk [CT03201] was killed and at least four other women wounded. Ms Monica Daniels [CT00151] had to have her arm amputated as a result of the shooting.

It is my contention that if participants in the process struggle to identify their own voices, teenage learners would have problems reading the text.

The TRC process played a significant role in our transition from Apartheid to democracy. Charles Villa-Vicencio argues that the TRC helped to foster a foundation on which national unity and reconciliation could be promoted. The TRC gave significance to truth telling, legal and moral accountability for past errors, empathy for perpetrators who acknowledged their crimes and the need for reparations for victims (Villa-Vicencio and Verwoerd 2000: 200-207). The process ensured a transition, from apartheid to democracy. It was instrumental in avoiding a possible bloodbath that the revolutionaries were demanding. It forced victims and perpetrators to declare their stories in a public forum. In time, its true value will become evident, but an immediate contribution is that it is a record of contemporary and social history.

The repressive policies of Apartheid subjected South Africans to deceptive information, mistrust, isolation, lack of communication, and fear. I therefore believe that addressing our past and acknowledging its contribution to shaping our future identities as South Africans is vital. My belief is that teenagers should be given access to this process as the

objective of the TRC was to address the legacy of the past by promoting national unity and reconciliation, to contribute to the healing of our nation. The report provides a history of human rights abuses, which should become part of the common history of future generations of South Africa. The aim of this research is to explore the viability of introducing the report to teenage learners in its present form.

Making the TRC accessible and focusing on it in the classroom may facilitate learners to better understand themselves and their place in the new South Africa. An examination of the narratives could illustrate to them the forces that shaped their lives (Flanagan W. 1990: 5). This focus may place in context and perspective their place in South Africa and contextualize the sacrifices others made for our democracy. Introducing learners to the literature of the TRC, I feel, could encourage critical thinking, give learners an opportunity to show initiative and allow them to investigate, analyse and interpret the world around them. This range of skills is needed for citizenship, encouraging active participation in the democratic decision-making process in our communities and our country, at large.

South Africa, because of our past, remains a deeply divided society and the TRC had many valuable lessons to teach us all as a way towards narrowing this divide. We need to create risk free environments in which people continue to tell their stories and where dialogue can continue, or in some cases, begin to take place so that this knowledge is not lost. Every South African has a responsibility to ensure that the lessons of pain and suffering that permeate our daily lives are acknowledged and addressed, so that we may

proceed in building our young democracy into a country that is truly representative of all its people.

For these reasons, I strongly feel, teenagers must be exposed to this account of contemporary and social history. Teenagers are the adults of the future and have a valuable role to play in the healing of our nation, and an exposure to the TRC may be instrumental in facilitating this process. Apartheid affected every South African and will continue to affect us for years to come. People need to be able to tell their stories, since different versions of the truth exist. These different perceptions can be addressed in multicultural classrooms in the 'new' South Africa. This may assist 'us' to come to terms with our past, heal the rifts of the past, and reach a point of reconciliation, which is the original aim of the TRC. The decision to decode the text in this way, bearing in mind that the participants in the TRC process came from all walks of life, means that it will be contested in some arenas.

The content of the discourse is orientated towards self-preservation through immortalising the work of the Truth and Reconciliation Commission. The Truth and Reconciliation Commission resulted from the Promotion of Reconciliation Act of 1990. It is embedded in our new democratic dispensation and as such, it promotes democracy and democratic processes. The five volumes of the report are a record of this process.

The orientation results from the perception of the world that believes in the power of disclosure and reconciliation to transform society. It derives power from religious and

other cultural values of honesty and forgiveness. For the TRC to achieve its aims, these values must compete successfully against the strong crime and punishment values that dominate our society.

The ideology is constructed favourably to our emerging democracy. "*Language is a reality creating social practice*" (Fowler 1985: 62). The language of power is constitutive, in that it attempts to create a 'new' social reality in South Africa, which is inclusive and free of the oppression of apartheid. It embraces the language of democracy. This language is in line with the democratic principles in which the Commission was established and in which it functioned.

The writers who produced the TRC report share membership within the TRC, and its practices, its value, its meanings, its demands, prohibitions, and permissions. The TRC report is a reflection of the kind of text that has currency and prominence in that specific community. Their social meanings are linguistically expressed and reinforced through its use of language, and constantly recreated or reproduced through the use of forms of language, which is visible in the text. The text therefore carries and expresses the meanings of the TRC. The TRC report generates messages, as it is a system of encoding reality. If one is to decode these messages, one must understand the intentions of those who were responsible for encoding meaning.

Fairclough argues that the goal of Critical Discourse Analysis is to *correct the widespread underestimation of the significance of language in production, maintenance*

and change of social relationships of power and helping to increase consciousness of how language contributes to the domination of some people by others (Fairclough 1989: 1). He identifies Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) as a *multidimensional approach to discourse analysis* (Fairclough 1992: 72). This approach asserts to incorporate three analytical traditions. *Textual and linguistic analysis, the macrosocial tradition and the microsocial tradition*. The macrosocial tradition involves the analysis of *social practice in relation to social structures*. The microsocial analysis deals with the way people make sense of discourse based on shared *common sense* procedures (Fairclough 1992: 72). Within the CDA framework, Fairclough renamed these traditions. The analysis of texts, the discursive practice – how texts are produced, distributed and consumed and social practice. As a result, discourse is viewed in its broader social context. This enables one to investigate hidden social practices and establish political undercurrents embedded in the text. A text he defines as an instance of discursive practice, which occurs within an instance of social practice, creating a discursive event (Fairclough 1992: 4). Critical Discourse analysis for Fairclough (1989) is an attempt to explain how linguistic elements function to structure the social category of class. He sees language as a social practice developing from, as well as maintaining, social conditions that give rise to power relations aligned with socio-economic class. He points out that analysts must make their position and commitment explicit.

Widdowson criticises the fact that discourse is as vague as it is fashionable. “*Discourse is something everybody is talking about but without knowing with any certainty just what it is; in vogue and vague*” (Widdowson 1995: 158). He also questions the lack of a clear

boundary between text and discourse. He argues that Critical Discourse Analysis cannot be defined as an analysis because it is an ideological interpretation. He feels that it is a biased interpretation since it is prejudiced on the basis of an ideological commitment and that the texts selected for CDA often support the preferred interpretation (Widdowson 1995: 169). He therefore accuses the analyst of making several judgements prior to an investigation (Widdowson 1995: 164).

2.4. Classroom Critical Discourse Analysis

Van Dijk (1993: 1131) argues that CDA challenges researchers *to go beyond mere description and explanation, and pay more explicit attention to the socio-political and cultural presuppositions and implications of discourse*. According to Van Dijk, CDA examines a combination of linguistic features to find out how language functions in the reproduction of social structures. It does not merely describe discourse structures but tries to explain them in terms of properties of social interaction and social structure. It therefore aims to understand, expose and resist social inequality. CDA is a study of the way *social power abuse; dominance and inequality are enacted, reproduced and resisted by text and talk in the social and political context* (Tannen, Schiffrin & Hamilton 1998: 1). Van Dijk advocates a distinction between *macro* and *micro* levels. This differentiation serves to display the need for CDA to theoretically bridge this gap. So the aim is to link the gap between the micro level of the social order (language use, verbal interaction and communication), and the macro level of analysis (power, dominance and inequality between social groups) (Van Dijk 1998: 3). Although CDA investigates the abuse of power and dominance, he points out that dominant group members do not always

exercise power in obviously abusive acts. Often it may be enacted in accepted, taken for granted action of everyday life.

In institutions like schools, the power of educators is based on knowledge, information and authority. Educators therefore have almost exclusive access to and control over this public discourse. The institution and the educators therefore control the context and determine the definition of the communicative situation, dictate the time and place of the communicative event, decide which participants are involved, the roles they play and what knowledge and opinions count. This in turn prescribes which social actions may or must be accomplished by discourse.

Allan Luke defines CDA as a contemporary approach to the study of language and discourses in social institutions. *...it focuses on how social relations, identity, knowledge and power are constructed through written and spoken texts in communities, schools and classrooms* (Luke 1995: 1).

He argues that it is imperative to write and hear historically marginalised voices. The need to create a space in schools, or rather classrooms, to critique dominant discourses is crucial to challenge identity formation, marginality and exclusion. Classroom talk can shape and reshape what counts as knowledge, subjectivity, legitimate social relations and textual practices. Classroom talk is the medium through which teachers and learners construct readings of textbooks, in effect reshaping text structures, features and knowledge into authoritative interpretations. Therefore he sees the task of CDA to

provide an analysis of cultural voices and texts in local educational sites, simultaneously, attempting to connect these with an understanding of power and ideology. Because schools act as gatekeepers of mastery of discursive resources, discourse and language function ideologically. In schools, there is differential access to discursive resources and these in turn illustrate the very educational competencies needed for social and economic relations in our information-based economies. He interprets the task of CDA as two-fold; deconstructive and constructive. Deconstructive, as it challenges the power relations of everyday talk and writing. Constructive, as it aims to develop a critical literacy curriculum. A critical curriculum which aims to expand the learners' capacity to critique and analyse discourse and social relations, and towards a more equitable distribution of discourse resources (Fairclough 1992). CDA thus employs interdisciplinary techniques of text analysis to look at how texts construct representations of the world, social identities, and social relationships. Classroom critical discourse analyses postulates that learners can be taught to critically analyse texts of the culture around them as part of literacy and social science education, and that critical literacy is the *new basic* for postmodern conditions.

CDA firstly, marks out a retheorisation of educational practice. Educational theory and practice historically relied on the metaphors of the unfolding child, the industrial machine, the individual rationalist mind, and the digital computer. CDA challenges this view and sees texts as interpretable phenomena that are constitutive of all educational and intellectual ventures. Secondly, CDA marks out a new set of methodological techniques and possibilities. It recasts all data and research artifacts as discourse. Thirdly, CDA

marks out grounds for rethinking pedagogical practices and outcomes as discourse. Therefore CDA suggests that mastery of discourse is the principle educational process and outcome, and that this mastery can be normatively reshaped to introduce teachers and learners to critical analysis of text-based, postmodern cultures and economies (Allan Luke 1995: Intro.).

CDA is an appropriate analytical approach for this research as it is an analytical tool that analyses real texts and their relations to real contexts. It acknowledges the fact that authentic texts are produced and read in real contexts with all its complexity. Thus, context includes the immediate environment in which a text is produced and interpreted as well as the larger societal context, which include its relevant cultural, political, and social facets. The TRC report has real consequences in the lives of South Africans. CDA takes into account the most relevant textual and contextual factors, including the historical ones that contribute to the production and interpretation of a given text. This is significant when analyzing the final TRC report as it a result of several factors of which learners may not be aware. CDA is a *“highly integrated form of discourse analysis”* that takes into account three interrelated levels of analysis: the text, the discursive practices and the larger social context at play (Huckin, T. 2001). This allows one to identify the processes of writing and speaking and reading and hearing that create and interpret the text. Since the TRC report was produced in a period of transition, CDA is appropriate as it describes not only unfair social and political processes but is explicitly critical of them. By focusing on language and other elements of discursive practice, CDA is an attempt to display ways in which dominant forces construct versions of reality that favour their

interests. This is extremely relevant to South Africa, where formally, information was state controlled, so a CDA of the TRC report could reveal how this has changed. CDA is an appropriate mechanism as it is a close analysis of written or oral texts that are politically and culturally influential to a given society and the TRC report is a significant text.

CDA advocates that texts are viewed as a whole. This means determining the genre of the text and observing how the text conforms to it. Genre knowledge enables one to detect and interpret manipulations of genre. The TRC draws on a range of different perspectives so that the text sometimes looks like a legal document, a historic text and a report. CDA will allow one to isolate these examples and identify how the text adheres to these different genre types. Because the principal unit of analysis for CDA is the text, taken to be social actions, meaningful and coherent instances of spoken and written language use, specific text types, and genres, serve conventional social uses and functions. CDA accepts that genres are dynamic and continually subject to innovation and reinvention. Therefore, genres constrain and enable meanings and social relations between speakers and listeners and writers and speakers. CDA also acknowledges that framing is a major part of text production and interpretation. The TRC report extracts that I will be focusing on are not simply a collection of details, they are a coherent text that pull these details together into a unified whole. Framing allows one to recognize how the content of the text is presented and the perspective the writers take. It allows one to identify if certain concepts are emphasized by giving them textual prominence or if others have been de-emphasised. CDA advocates that one observes this as foregrounding or backgrounding.

CDA as a tool alerts one to the fact that presuppositions are manipulative because they are difficult to challenge. Presupposition is the use of language in a way that appears to take certain ideas for granted, as if no alternative exists. CDA also pays special attention to words and phrases. It therefore focuses on sentence and word-level analysis, drawing analytical methods from systemic functional linguistics. It draws on Halliday's argument (1985), that lexical and grammatical features of texts have identifiable functions: they represent and portray the social and natural world, they construct and effect social relations and they develop conventions as coherent, identifiable texts in particular media. It alerts one to take note of the additional, special meanings or connotations that certain words and phrases carry. The TRC text makes widespread use of the words victims and perpetrators. CDA requires one to acknowledge the unavoidable connotations to these words. It alerts one to the fact that sometimes certain connotations are conveyed through the use of metaphor and other figures of speech. CDA advocates that register also plays an important role as is visible in the formality assumed by the TRC report.

Taking the TRC text into the classroom would require learners to read for comprehension. Learners tend to read uncritically because reading, for them, amounts to the search of answers to specific questions. In line with CDA, they should read it critically, which is not encouraged in schools. Critical readings demands revisiting the text at different levels, raising questions about it, imagine how it could have been constructed differently and mentally compare it to other texts used in the class.

To summarise, the TRC report is the result of several transformations. It resulted from public participation in the process by victims and perpetrators. Although many painful experiences were revealed, one has to question how free participants were to “tell it all” as it were, given the formal setting, the media, the technology on display, the confidence of speakers in that setting, and the legal leaning of the process. This inhibiting environment may have influenced the submissions. The retelling of these painful experiences had to be influenced by time, memory and the emotions of the teller. These personal narratives went through several processes which resulted in the final report. Many of these personal stories were told in mother-tongue, many of them in indigenous languages, which may have lost quite a bit in translation. The choice to record these narratives in standardised, formal language, de-personalises it. It removes the reader from the reality and one may only see the literal meaning which reduces the complexity of people’s experiences during this period of our history. CDA may allow one to trace this reconstruction and begin to illuminate the hidden meanings. CDA allows one to look beyond literal meaning. It forces one to take cognisance of hidden meanings that require one to delve into the text and look at it from different angles. Taking the TRC text into the classroom should be with all these meanings visible. For young learners to effectively engage with the text, given their lack of experience with this type of text, would require one to display these hidden meanings so that the emphasis on literal meaning, which is perpetuated in schools, does not go unchallenged. Learners are too readily taught to accept texts without question and therefore, the aim of this thesis is to make evident literal meaning as well as the hidden meaning in the text. CDA will inform the shape these texts take when they are introduced to the learners.

Fairclough and Wodak aptly define CDA, and when one relates it to the TRC, it implies that the TRC process, the writing of the report and the readers are all locked in the text in ways that are not always visible. *“Critical discourse analysis sees discourse – language use in speech and writing – as a form of ‘social practice’. Describing discourse as social practice implies a dialectical relationship between a particular discursive event and the situation(s), institution(s) and social structure(s) which frame it. A dialectical relationship is a two-way relationship: the discursive event is shaped by situations, institutions and social structures, but it also shapes them.”* (Fairclough & Wodak 1997: 55).

In conclusion, I look to Hymes, Halliday and Fairclough, who collectively view language as a social phenomenon to support my aim to introduce teenage learners to the TRC report. They all argue for a focus on the social meanings of language, although from different perspectives.

I quote Fairclough (2003) on CDA as an element of processes of ‘transition’ since the TRC report is a product of transition and South Africa is in the process of transition. *“I see critical discourse analysis as a resource for producing richer understanding and analysis of the relationship between discourse and other non-discursive facets of social processes and social change, and of the effects of discourse on wider processes of social change, through a ‘transdisciplinary’ dialogue with other theories and disciplines.”*

I therefore conclude that a critical analysis of the discourse at work in the TRC report will influence the shape the rewritten texts will take. Analysing and assessing the TRC text therefore points to measuring instruments with a more social emphasis, and as such, I explore readability, language proficiency assessment and reading comprehension to inform the process of decoding the TRC text.

2.5. Readability

Readability generally describes the ease with which a document can be read. In order to measure readability, readability tests were developed. Readability tests, which are mathematical formulas, were designed to assess the suitability of books for learners at particular grade levels or ages. Readability tests fail to measure features like interest and enjoyment. They cannot measure how comprehensible a text is, and therefore, cannot measure whether a text is suitable for particular readers' needs. They enable measurement of the number of personal pronouns in a text, the average number of syllables in words or the number of sentences in the text. These factors are usually described as Semantic, if they concern the word used, and Syntactic if they concern the length or structure of sentences. These elements are surface-level features of texts and do not take into account the nature of the topic or the characteristics of the readers.

Readability, according to Klare (1963), refers to the ease of understanding or comprehension due to style of writing. De Beaugrande (1980: 283) argues that readability is a reference to the ease and speed the text's meaning is understood by the reader it is intended for, the successful completion of the task incorporated in the text by the intended reader and the ability to recall the significant factors of the text after reading

(cited in Langan 1999)). According to David Crystal, readability is “the ease with which the written language can be read with understanding” (Crystal, D. 1992: 327).

The readability of a text therefore describes the efficiency with which it can be read. Readability formulas are designed to assess the suitability of texts for learners in a particular grade, level or age. These formulas tend to focus on semantic and syntactic elements. Campbell (1987: 123) postulates that readers most often identify vocabulary as the cause of difficulty. According to Harrison (1979), the potential value of text is determined by the ability of the learners to read and understand; how the educator presents the text within a lesson, and factors associated with the text itself, legibly and attractively produced, and clearly and simply written. Gilliland (1972) defines readability as the ease of reading, the ease of interest, and the ease of understanding. All of these factors he argues are influenced by the reader's age, sex, personality, previous experience, socio-economic background, mental maturity and intellectual capacity, as well as by the content, style, format and organisation of the text. Dale and Chall (cited in Gilliland 1972) argue that readability refers to all those elements within a given text that affects the reader's success. Success pertains to the extent to which the reader understands it, reads it at optimum speed and finds it interesting.

Readability thus reflects the inherent care with which a given text may be read by the reader. The question arises, however, as to whether a given text is readable, is widely and hotly contested site of research, teaching and praxis and interrogates whether texts are appropriately encoded to meet a given readership level.

Essentially it falls into two areas:

2.5.1. Technician Approaches

2.5.2. Social Approaches

2.5.1. Technician approaches

In this approach, literacy is seen as a technical skill, something happening inside the head of an individual. It is assumed to be universal across all cultures and to be politically neutral. This model literacy is valued as it is seen to have a *positive consequence for cognitive development, which is considered to follow universal patterns* (Jill Bourne 1996: 185). A distinction is made between reading and writing and oracy, which highlight a divide between oral and literate consciousness. This accounts for development from speech to reading and writing. There is focus on learning as an individual and on mental activity. Research is carried out in experimental settings. Those working within the autonomous model of literacy draw on *psychology, cognitive theory and developmental learning to describe literacy* (Jill Bourne 1996: 187).

In this approach, reading is seen as building up a particular skill. Early reading tends to be characterised in terms of the ability to perform discrete tasks which do not necessarily involve the ability to make sense of a written message. Cook (1989) describes this approach as *atomistic* which means that the data is divided up into manageable chunks of learning. Thus, early reading skills are exemplified by, for example, performance on certain motor skills, the ability to discriminate shapes and patterns, and phonic and word recognition skills. Letters are matched up to sound, referred to as word recognition skills which involves the ability to name whole words. Materials therefore focus on one or

several skills. This approach does not necessarily ignore what the learners bring to the text. Educators should create opportunities for learners to participate rather than focus on correct answers only. What would be more valuable is an understanding of the ways in which regularities in the writing system are more systematically represented by visual features. The features can be pointed out and discussed rather than being specifically taught. There should be a focus on the graphophonic level of language and the semantic and syntactic levels, to encourage learners to use the whole range of their linguistic and schematic resources to predict meaning when faced with longer texts. Literacy is treated as a skill or set of skills, which can be ordered into a set of stages, starting with pre-reading skills and taught in a particular order, each skill building upon the last. In these terms, reading becomes a mechanical, technical process and literacy the core basic skill upon which further educational work rests. A controversy exists as to whether these skills are context-free attributes and can be used across different social situations.

Catherine Wallace states that reading is a unitary process because firstly, it cannot be adequately broken down into separate skills, and because secondly, we draw on similar processing strategies in the reading of all languages, *even where the writing system is very different* (Wallace 1992: 22). Buck (1979) concurs that the process of deriving meaning from written or printed symbols is similar across languages and across contexts. Cummis and Swain (1986) refer to a Common Underlying Proficiency in language development whereby literacy skill is generalisable. One premise of this view is that it is not possible to identify specific skills which can be built up in any hierarchical way to produce an effective reader. Lunzer and Gardner (1979) describe reading comprehension

as a *unitary aptitude*. This view of reading refers to reading strategies rather than distinct skills. Thus, effective readers draw on a range of strategies which are determined by reader purpose, text-type and context. Efficient readers predict and sample, selecting the minimal visual information consistent with their prediction.

Once learners begin to read longer texts, the educator should observe readers to assess outcomes in the form of answers to comprehension questions. Here the focus should not be exclusively on surface fluency but also on miscues, including the readers own perception of problems during the reading process.

Olson (1977) claims that written language is decontextualised and autonomous in an attempt to highlight the differences between spoken and written language. While he referred to a restricted type of text, essay type literacy (Wallace 1992: 26), all forms of written language are produced and received in a context which affects the way they are interpreted.

Schemas have been described as *cognitive constructs which allow for the organisation of information in long term memory* (Widdowson 1983: 34). Cook argues that *the mind, stimulated by key words or phrases in the text or by the context, activates a knowledge schema* (Cook 1989: 69). According to Cook and Widdowson, the cognitive characteristics of schemas allow us to tolerate incoming information to already known information. Wallace (1992: 36) points out that schemas are not just cognitive constructs for the mental organisation of concepts, but also socio-psychological constructs which

allow us to attach values and attitudes to that knowledge, which are shaped by the social experiences the readers bring to the text. The reader brings together the linguistic knowledge (how texts are constructed), and their familiarity within a text, to draw upon a relevant schema.

2.5.2. Social approaches

Brian Street refers to the technicist approach to literacy as "autonomous" (Street 1993: 5). He argues that the issue of literacy is often represented as simply technical: People need to be taught how to decode letters and once they have acquired this skill, they are able to utilise it in a range of contexts. This model advocates that literacy will have effects on other social and cognitive practices. Street challenges the notion that *literacy* can be *given* neutrally and then its *social* effects are experienced later (Street 2001).

Street advocates a social approach to literacy. "*The autonomous model of literacy has been a dominant feature of educational and development theory.*" (Street 1995: 133). New Literacy Studies does not focus so much on acquiring skills, as in dominant approaches, but rather views literacy as a social practice (Street 1985). This demands the recognition of multiple literacies. Street makes a distinction between *autonomous* and *ideological* models of literacy and further distinguishes between *literacy events* and *literacy practices* (Street 1988). New literacy Studies would locate the focus on acquisition of skills within a reductionist and autonomous model of literacy, which assumes reading and writing to be neutral skills that can be delivered cross-culturally to achieve specific effects. New Literacy Studies argues for socially-located, culturally sensitive view of literacy practices that vary across contexts and are always related to

contests over resources, definitions and deployment of power within larger, “orders of discourse” (Street 1999). The notion of multiple literacies is crucial in challenging the autonomous model. Research in New Literacy Studies challenges the autonomous view and advocates that in practice literacy differs from one context to another. The ideological model of literacy offers a more culturally sensitive view of literacy practices as they vary from one context to another. Literacy is not simply a technical and neutral skill, but a social practice. *“It is about knowledge: the ways in which people address reading and writing are themselves rooted in conceptions of knowledge, identity, and being.”* (Street 1999).

Street argues that our task as teachers is to help learners not to take things at face value, to recognize when people are *not talking straight* and to see grammar as a *means of representing patterns of experiences*. Educators must help learners *to build a mental picture of reality, to make sense of their experience of what goes on around them and inside them; to be aware of the figurative devices that lie at the very heart of discourse*, to recognize the rich variety of tropes, registers and language forms, to deploy to the full the metaphorical potential of language.

The most significant argument in this approach is that literacy is always contested, both in meaning and practice. Particular versions of literacy are always “ideological”. They are rooted in a particular world view that aims to dominate while marginalising others (Gee 1990).

2.6. Approach adopted for this research

Reading involves both a social and a cognitive process. Not only do social and cognitive factors affect reading behaviour but reading itself is “*simultaneously a process of socialization, enculturation and cognition*” (David Bloome 1994). At the time, Bloome advised that new conceptions of reading are necessary, which are both complementary to cognitively based definitions of reading and definitions of reading as a social process.

Street’s (2001: 12) argument that the autonomous model ignores literacy as a social practice and insists that literacy is simply a technical and neutral skill is too monotheoretical. The model acknowledges that the way people address reading and writing are embedded in conceptions of knowledge, identity and being. It is not exclusively about grammar and lexis. Therefore it is appropriate to adopt a broader view of language, which draws from both the technicist and social approaches. Language is viewed to include not only its grammatical aspects, but also the ability to use language appropriately in different contexts and the ability to organise one's thoughts through language. It attempts to develop the learners' sociolinguistic and discourse competencies in addition to their grammatical competence.

Street claims that literacy empowers individuals to challenge the dominant culture but this is only possible if they proceed past the access and required levels. In order to participate in classroom reading events, learners need to gain access to those events. Access to literacy learning situations involves creating opportunities to interact with text or language in ways appropriate to school-based reading development. Griffin argues that

empowerment may not occur until individuals proceed past the access and required levels to levels where they are able to set the parameters on what literacy skills are required (Griffin 1990: 22).

According to Prinsloo, when schools teach literacy as an exclusive skill which entails only coding and de-coding, they neglect to teach children how to construct meaning through text which is favoured in schooling. He argues that effective literacy employs a range of resources (Prinsloo 1998: 8-11). Therefore, I adopt a broader view of language and view it to include not only its grammatical aspects, but also the ability to use language appropriately in different contexts and the ability to organise one's thoughts through language. It therefore incorporates sociolinguistic and discourse competencies in addition to grammatical competence. Reading will also be influenced by the learners' language proficiency.

2.7. Language Proficiency in English

In an attempt to define language proficiency (LP), I take into account the debate among academics and practitioners. Cummings (1994) points out that some researchers argue that it consists of 64 separate language components, whereas others argue that LP consists of only one global factor. Valdés and Figueroa (1994: 34) state that knowing a language and knowing how to utilize it involves a mastery and control of a huge number of interdependent components and elements that interact with one another and that are affected by the nature of the situation that the communication takes place. The lack of consensus and the complexities of language demands that language proficiency tests should be based on a defensible model of language proficiency. Existing tests have been

developed on a surplus of definitions and theories. The test must exemplify the model. Canale (1994: 60) says language usage is dynamic and contextually based. It is discursive and requires the use of integrative skills to achieve communicative competence.

A fully English proficient learner is able to ask questions, to understand the teacher, and the reading material, to test ideas, and able to challenge what is being asked in the classroom (Del Vecchio, A. and Guerrere M. 1995). The four language skills, Reading, Listening, Writing and Speaking contribute to proficiency. Reading refers to the ability to comprehend and interpret texts at the age and grade- appropriate level. Listening is a reference to the ability to understand the language of the teacher and instruction, comprehend and extract information and follow the instructional discourse. Writing refers to the ability to produce written texts with content and format which adhere to classroom expectations of the grade and age. Canale (1994) stresses the socio-theoretical nature of language. She challenges the theory that it is merely about pronunciation, vocabulary or grammar. For her, language develops within a culture to convey its beliefs and customs. Language usage, she argues, is dynamic and contextually based. It therefore varies depending on the situation, the speaker, and the topic. It is discursive and is dependent on the use of integrated skills to achieve communicative competence (Canale 1994: 60).

Learners need a range of linguistic abilities to be able to perform at school. These skills are linked to particular ages and grades. Besides the skills listed below, the language user is aware of social and cultural rules governing language mediated activities. Orally they

need to respond to teachers and peers, ask questions, and synthesise reading material. In terms of reading skills, they are required to gain meaning from a variety of different texts. They have to write short answers, paragraphs, essays and term papers. The school is the context within which these skills are developed, and therefore, the proficiency test should replicate the contextualised language processing used in the language classroom. Valdés and Figueroa (1994) argue that the language tasks of the tests must resemble the language tasks characteristic of the classroom. Oller and Damico (1991) indicate that language proficiency tests can be associated with three schools of thought:

- The discrete point approach.
- Integrative or holistic approach.
- Pragmatic language testing.

The discrete point approach assumed that Language proficiency can be divided into separate components of phonology, morphology, lexicon, syntax, which can further be divided into sounds, classes of sounds or phonemes, syllables, morphemes, words, idioms, phrase structures, etc. This model made it difficult to test one skill – writing, without involving another – reading. It was impossible to limit language testing to a single linguistic domain – vocabulary, without involving other domains – phonology. It demanded that language was measured in the absence of any social context or linked to human experience (Oller and Damico 1991: 82).

The above limitations gave rise to a second trend in language testing, the integrative or holistic approach. This type of testing required that language proficiency was assessed “in a fairly rich context of discourse” (Oller and Damico 1992: 83). This approach was

dependent on the belief that language use comprises of the simultaneous engagement of more than one language component and skill. The test demanded that the learner listened to a story and then retell the story, or to read the story and then write about the story.

Damico and Oller describe a third trend referred to as pragmatic language testing. The test-taker will engage in a listening task only under the contextual and temporal conditions that generally characterise this activity. This trend assumes that learners will not listen to an audio-taped story, as it falls short of meeting pragmatic criteria. Stories are usually told by adults or read by competent readers. Oller and Damico (1991) argue that all the goals of discrete point items are better achieved in the full rich context of one or more pragmatic tests. Although, as a method of linguistic analysis, the discrete point approach had some validity, it failed as a practical method for assessing language abilities (Oller and Damico 1992: 85).

Language proficiency tests need to be based on a particular theory, but there appears to be no consensus among researches. Consequently, language proficiency differs in many ways from one another, and therefore provides different results. It is therefore irresponsible to claim that the perfect test exists and to make decisions based on a single test.

2.8. Readability Tests

David Crystal (1992: 327), in his definition of readability, maintains that “several approaches have tried to devise measures of readability (readability formulae), generally computing the average length of words and sentences in a passage, and sometimes attempting to deal with lexical novelty (the number of new words found in successive samples from the passage) and grammatical complexity. We question (comprehensibility) when we ask whether its readers understand a text. Readability formulas cannot measure how comprehensible a text is. Readability tests were originally designed as mathematical equations, which compare measurable elements of writing. These tests, for example, measure the number of personal pronouns in the text, the average number of syllables in words, number of prepositional phrases or the number of words in sentences in the text.

Readability formulas measure only certain features of text, which can be subjected to mathematical calculations. Readability tests measure the difficulty of words and the difficulty of sentences. Other aspects of language, sentence structure, and organisation of ideas are significant to comprehension. The use of language that is simple, direct, economic and familiar, facilitates comprehension. The omission of unessential words, the use of sentence structures that are explicit and unambiguous as well as the organisation and structure of material in an orderly and logical way. In addition, physical aspects of the document are important like type style, layout, design or use of graphics. Readability tests are often criticized as “primitive and misleading” as they do not take into account semantic complexity (David Crystal 1992: 327).

2.9. Cloze Procedure

Cloze Procedure is sometimes treated as a readability test because a formula exists for translating the data from cloze tests into numerical results (Rye 1982: 1). This approach focuses on the reader's process through a text rather than on the text itself. It involves the deletion of words from the passage on a regular basis (every 5th or 6th word). Readability is assessed through the ease or difficulty with which the reader is able to provide acceptable answers to complete the gapped text. The test measures the learner's ability to select appropriate words based on her ability to infer meaning from context and cultural experience. By constructing meaning from the available words and completing the text, the reader achieves *closure*. *"The word cloze is related to the concept of closure and our tendency to complete a partly finished pattern, to pick out key words and rely on language repetition* (Roslyn Dixon 1989). In an attempt to fill the gap, the reader goes through a process of sampling, predicting, testing, and confirming the appropriate word choice. The reader has to reason and construct suggestions to fill the gap based on the evidence derived from the context (Rye: 1982).

Russell (1978) postulates that Cloze Procedure measures the reader's ability to make an educated guess. The poor reader's inability to fill the gaps correctly could be because of several factors. Various skill deficiencies may interfere with comprehension, like her inability to decode, lack of comprehension, or her inability to tolerate frustration, to name a few. Only the exact correct responses are acceptable and synonyms are not considered correct. Porter argues that the reader has the dual task of comprehending the passage as well as re-producing the language necessary to fill the gaps (Porter 1976).

A controversy exists regarding the use of Cloze Procedure. Annette T. Rabin (1988) argues that this controversy is because it is a subjective evaluation that mirrors the language ability and background of information of the person taking the test.

DISADVANTAGE: Testing readability is contentious because it assumes that meaning is inherent in the text.

ADVANTAGE: Although the process is technicist and somewhat flawed, it is a manageable tool for classroom use and it provided us with a standardised mechanism to test readability. I chose to employ Cloze Procedure as a readability test as an advantage in that it can be marked efficiently and objectively. In attempting to replace the deleted words, the learner is forced to pay special attention to messages conveyed by the remaining words. In making her word selection, the learner depends on prior knowledge, general understanding of the text or subject of the material, context clues, and knowledge of language.

Introducing the report of the Truth and Reconciliation Commission (TRC) to learners in its original form could mean many learners are confronted with a new topic, which is communicated in a language unfamiliar to them and therefore the vocabulary may be an obstacle to comprehension. This could lead to learner frustration, which in turn, could interfere with the development of interest, attitudes, and appreciation of the TRC report that I am proposing should be used as a teaching tool. Successful reading is dependent on the reading abilities, interests, background of the readers, the learning expected and the assistance offered by the educator or classmates. For the purposes of this dissertation, I

view reading as a dynamic relationship between the reader and the text. Making meaning can only be realized in the interaction between the reader and the text. Thus, meaning is created in the process as the reader draws on both existing linguistic and schematic knowledge and the contribution made by the printed text (Alderson and Urquhart 1984). Constructivism introduced the notion that one constructs meaning, as an active participant. Constructivists postulate that people construct their own understanding and knowledge of the world, by experiences and reflecting on those experiences. Therefore, when we encounter something new, we have to reconcile it with our existing knowledge and experiences, possibly changing what we believe, or discarding the new information as irrelevant. Since we are active creators of our own knowledge, we must question, explore, and assess what we know.

Bakhtin challenges the 'monologic' concept of meaning (Bakhtin 1973). He emphasized the 'dialogic' nature of meaning and argues that language takes place in a unique social, cultural and ideological context. Therefore, meaning cannot be regarded as indisputable. *"The word 'meaning' is not fixed, because meaning is a social as well as linguistic phenomenon ..."* (Harrison and Salinger 1998). As a result, meaning varies within each context of production and interpretation. Texts cannot offer a single, unified authorial view of the world. The reader's challenge is an active, personal and individual interpretation of meaning. Iser (1978) concurs that the process of reading is dynamic. The reader, armed with personal experiences and social and cognitive schemata, makes predictions, assumptions and inferences. These are constantly developed, confronted and negated. The reader is therefore an integral and active collaborator in the process of

making meaning. The fluent reader is able to anticipate what is coming next in a language sequence based on the clues in the text. Goodman (1967) argues that as readers progress through texts, our choices of what to select are constrained. He postulates that the reader employs three cue systems, which he refers to as; graphophonic, syntactic, and semantic. Therefore, readers firstly, make use of their knowledge of visual and phonetic features, secondly, they draw on their knowledge of syntax that dictates word order, and thirdly, they are aware of semantic constraints that dictate word meaning.

How one views reading will affect the successful use of the TRC report as a classroom tool. The report may fail to communicate the basic concepts inherent in it due to a too advanced level of writing. To establish if teenage learners are able to decode the text, its readability must be determined. Based on the literature reviewed, I made the choices illustrated in Chapter Three to test the readability of the TRC text.

CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

3.1. Research Design

Is the TRC text too complex for 15 year olds, and if so, how can it be made more readable? My experience as a teacher of English leads me to the conclusion that it is. This research seeks to test this assertion. I take into cognisance the emergent theoretical base I have developed from my review of the literature and explore how it can be applied to the analysis and decoding of the TRC. I plan to proceed as follows:

- To establish if the TRC report is comprehensible to teenage learners:
- Do pilot pre-test language proficiency test to establish the reading age of subjects against which to judge the outcome of the readability tests.
- Using the examples of original TRC texts, do class trials using Cloze Procedure exercises with teenage learners to establish if they are able to read and understand the text and are able to demonstrate this understanding through testing and comprehension.
- Using rewritten texts, do class trials of Cloze Procedure exercises with teenage learners to establish if they are able to read and understand the text and demonstrating this understanding through testing and comprehension.
- Employ two other readability measures against which to judge the validity of Cloze Procedure as a readability test.

The analysis of the language of the TRC report necessitates taking extracts into the classroom to be assessed. Before this can be undertaken, one needs to first establish how well the learners are prepared to meet the demands of the exercise. One must therefore take cognisance of the following:

- Background experience
- Vocabulary: Lexis, word recognition and analysis
- Concepts
- General language development
- Thinking abilities
- Discourse processing skills, competence and text.
- Overall language proficiency in English
- Reading age versus grade age

(Individual Progress in reading. 1973 The Open University)

Readability tests are controversial even though computerised programs make them easier to obtain. They tend to measure word length or frequency and sentence length. Long sentences and difficult words, which are surface elements of texts, will not necessarily improve comprehension if they are made shorter and easier respectively. These tests do not take into account what the reader brings to the text in terms of word recognition, interest in the subject, and prior knowledge of the topic.

3.2. Research Questions

Exploring the Truth and Reconciliation Commission (TRC) Report as a classroom resource questions how and why the TRC text should be made readable to teenage learners. I therefore have to acknowledge that the Truth and Reconciliation (TRC) Report is written in sophisticated, academic English and interrogate if it should and can be adapted to the reading level/s of 15-16 year old English Additional Language learners to give them access to the TRC Report. The aim of this research therefore, is to establish the viability and appropriateness of introducing the Truth and Reconciliation Report into the classroom. My focus therefore, is to provide evidence on how and why it is readable at this level and how this research can be used as a basis for further such work. In order to answer my research question, taking into account that readability tests do not always acknowledge what the reader brings to the text, I take cognizance of the following sub-questions. These sub-questions explore what these teenage readers bring to the text and what they need to engage effectively with the TRC text.

3.2.1. Experience Background

What experiences must the reader bring to the reading of this material?
What experiences and background information is necessary to promote understanding?
One needs to ask what "experiential" data are available in the text to the reader.

3.2.2. Vocabulary

What vocabulary in the selection is essential to the understanding of the text?
What vocabulary must the reader master before the text can be read?
What vocabulary can the reader develop through the reading of the text?

3.2.3. Concepts

What concepts are necessary for the understanding of the text?
What concepts must the learner have attained prior to the reading of the text?

What concepts could be attained through the reading of the text?

3.2.4. General Language Development

What is the level of language development represented by the language of the text (vocabulary, structure and style)? What level of language must the reader have before she can begin to read the text with understanding? What progress in language development might the reader make through reading the text?

3.2.5. Thinking Abilities

What thinking abilities are necessary for the understanding of the text? What thinking must the learners already be able to use in order to understand the text? With what thinking abilities might the child get help through reading the text?

3.2.6. Word Recognition and Analysis

What potentially difficult word recognition tasks will the learner face in reading the text? New words to the learner that are crucial to the understanding of the text. What word recognition and word analysis abilities must she have to handle these tasks? Which of these abilities must she already be able to use independently and spontaneously? With what specific recognition or analysis demands can the reader get help by what is offered in the text?

3.2.7. Discourse Processing Skills

The use of language as it structures our understanding of social and power relations. The language and rhetoric of the text in relation to that of other arenas of social meaning and power. The way in which we have learned to speak of our experiences, ideas and desires. Our recognition of the relevance of reference, the conventions of reading, history of interpretation, usage of genre, the multiple meaning of words, their connotation, and metaphors and our ability to judge inference and probability.

3.3 Why Twelve to Fifteen-Year-Olds?

Since the research subjects are 12 to 15 year olds, I first explore this age group of learners. Due to puberty, many changes occur in learners at this stage of their lives. They mature physically, sexually, cognitively and socially. It is a time for them to focus on critical and creative skills to develop attitudes, which lead to understanding their role in society.

Their moral development is inextricably linked to cognitive and social development. In this period, they explore moral judgments and decisions. It is at this stage that they learn to respect the values and attitudes of others. By means of the report of the Truth and Reconciliation Commission, they could be given an opportunity to explore the choices made by others, decide if they agree with the options and motivate their choices.

One must take cognizance of the stage of cognitive, psychological, spiritual and emotional and physical development of learners as these have an impact on learning and teaching. How they are introduced to the gross human rights violations must be carefully explored. Crime and violence is prevalent in South Africa today and we are constantly bombarded with violent images through the media. It is in this context that I argue that learners are able to cope with many of the horrors shared in the report. The report will expose them to the terrible human pain and suffering, while simultaneously illustrating the power of forgiveness.

Fifteen years olds are at a very vulnerable age because they are experiencing significant emotional and physical changes. They are extremely sensitive and are easily hurt and offended. Through the TRC they can be introduced to the idea that honesty, irrespective of how painful it is, is desirable. Differences, disagreements and arguments that arise in the classroom can be settled by a system of mediation whereby learners accept responsibility for their actions. Learners could be encouraged to accept apologies and excuse the offender.

The diversity of the class group must also be taken into account. The learners' background, culture and mother tongue all influence learning and teaching. The school and the classroom culture, as well as the communities the learners come from, all impact on the process. They all bring to the classroom unique personalities and backgrounds, which shape who they are. This can be tapped into to promote tolerance and respect for differences. The rich ensemble of personal stories can be related to the personal stories visible in the TRC report and allow learners to understand why people made particular choices and why others did not.

Introducing learners to the concept of human rights through the TRC report may display how the human rights violations of the past shaped our constitution. It may give them an opportunity to recognize the injustices of the past and emphasise the significance of the TRC process in the development of South Africa. Unfortunately, these teenagers are out of touch with the realities of Apartheid because of their age (15 in 2005- therefore 4 years old in 1994). The transformation of South Africa is far more relevant to them as it is within their realm of experience. Through the TRC, young learners can be given access to the life experiences of both victims and perpetrators and begin to understand the contexts these people found themselves in. It makes available to them not only the horrors of the past but also the value of truth, forgiveness and reconciliation. Alternatively, it may illustrate that the TRC process was flawed and encourage them to question it. It may permit them to understand our country's development and by so doing, allow them to gain an appreciation for our newfound democracy. My focus on the TRC will illustrate

what young teenagers experienced during Apartheid. The power of the youth and their contribution to the struggle against the Apartheid regime may inspire them to recognize injustice and encourage them to address it.

3.4. Methodology

3.4.1. Readability of the TRC Report

SITE: The research was conducted at a former House of Representation school on the Cape Flats. This area was previously designated for *coloured* people exclusively. Although some of the learners come from middle class homes, the majority of the learners are from the sub-economic township, Parkwood Estate. This “previously” disadvantaged community is poverty stricken. Many of the parents are unemployed and illiterate. Those who are employed work in the unskilled labour sector. Most of the learners come from single parent families, where their mothers are struggling to eke out a meager existence for themselves and their children.

The families are confronted with many of the issues that characterise these areas like gangsterism, drug and substance abuse, teenage pregnancy and rampant violence. These learners face many very adult problems while still young and survival is not necessarily dependent on schooling. So education is not as highly valued as we would like to believe. The school is predominantly Afrikaans as Medium of Instruction with English as an Additional Language. There are 26 classes and only 9 classes are English as medium of instruction learners. The community is predominantly Afrikaans mother tongue speakers so, in reality, many English as medium of instruction learners should not be in English classes. English is seen to have currency and therefore preferred. It is viewed as the

3.5. The Process

- Two Grade ten classes:
 - 1 English as Language of learning and teaching
 - 1 English as an additional language
- One Grade eleven:
 - English as an additional language

INSTRUCTIONS TO LEARNERS

- Write only one word in each space
- Try to fill every blank space
- You may skip the difficult ones and go back to them when you have finished
- Do not worry about spelling, as long as we can tell what words you mean."

Learners were first introduced to the TRC and briefly made aware of the process that resulted in the report (see appendix 1). In addition to the Cloze Procedure exercise, the learners also had to respond to the following questions (see appendix 2).

1. Did you enjoy the exercise? YES NO [Circle your choice]

If **yes**, explain why _____

If **no**, explain why _____

2. Was it an easy or difficult exercise to complete?

If **easy**, explain why _____

If **difficult**, explain why _____

3.6. Cloze Procedure (Modified) – TRC Report

The TRC report extracts taken into the classroom differed somewhat from the original. I had redrafted these as follows: As far as possible, every fifth or sixth word was deleted. In some cases where the deleted word was a pronoun, a particle, a conjunction, or a legal term, the previous or following word was deleted (see appendix 3). Oller (1983) advises one to adjust the ratio and delete the adjoining word if the deleted word is a difficult, low-frequency proper noun. Cohen (1980) suggests that educators complete the Cloze

Procedure exercise themselves and make adjustments as they see fit. Traditional Cloze Procedure only accepts the correct word, as it appeared in the original, as correct.

In assessing the learners' answers to the Cloze Procedure exercises, synonyms were accepted as correct. If the learner filled in a synonym, it proved that he/she understood the text since it was a test aimed at assessing the learners' comprehension. Linda Steinman (2002) argues that learners have a greater chance of completing the exercise successfully if they are permitted to use any acceptable word.

Cloze Procedure exercises of the TRC report were trialled in the classroom to establish if learners were able to read it. The decision to use this method, to establish if the discourse at work in the TRC report is accessible to secondary school learners, was because it enabled learners to use the surrounding context to help them determine the missing words.

3.6.1. Testing Comprehension

Readability and reading comprehension are perhaps related concepts. Therefore, in order to select a text for assessing reading comprehension, the readability of that text needs to be appropriate for the reading ability of the target group. Reading comprehension is the process of understanding and constructing meaning from text. Reading difficulties become apparent when the reader is unable to grasp the meaning from a text passage. Therefore, one must take cognisance of the fact that reading comprehension may be affected by the difficulty of the TRC text, the vocabulary words used in the text and the learner's familiarity with the subject matter. Using the same extracts, I will test for

comprehension. The following types of questions will be utilized to test for comprehension.

TYPES OF QUESTIONS:

These are the main types of questions that will be posed to the learners.

- Opinion questions: “what do you think of?”
- Prediction questions: “what will happen if?”
- Explanation questions: “why did that happen?”
- Summarise: “Briefly explain in your own words.”
- Recall or factual questions.
- Comprehension questions. (see Appendix 4)

3.6.2. The Readability Test

1. *An extract of the TRC report in its original form.*
2. *The original extract rewritten.*

The extracts were rewritten based on the following questions.

WHY MAKE THE LANGUAGE ACCESSIBLE?

Kress (1985) suggests that we ask the following questions about texts.

- A. *Why was the topic written about?*
- B. *How is the topic written about?*
- C. *What other ways of writing about the topic are there?*

A. The Commission was obliged to compile a report detailing its findings.

B. The Discourse Analysis explores how the topic is addressed.

C. What other ways are there of writing about the topic?

Since my hypothesis is that learners will experience problems in their attempts to decode the TRC report, it would be appropriate to transform it into language that is more accessible. Transforming the text brings into question the authenticity of this new text. The act of taking the TRC report into the classroom for pedagogic purposes implies that its authenticity is lost. Catherine Wallace (1993: 82) argues that authenticity lies in the

interaction of the reader with the text rather than within the features of the text itself. The challenge is in making the text accessible while at the same time keeping the content similar and accurate. It is imperative to write a pedagogic text, which stays within the generic convention of a historic text, and maintain a syntactic consistency. Suitable reading level is significant to determine what learners learn from texts. Making the text accessible is dependent on the content of the text, the grade it is intended for, and the reading ability of the learners using it. It would be safe to assume that the TRC report was never intended for classroom use and therefore it cannot be assessed as such.

Transformed texts must display cohesion. Coherent and cohesive texts are easier to understand (J.S. Chall 1991: 17). Text, to make sense, uses vocabulary and syntactic structures to connect its sentences together. There are at least two ways in which sentences combine within texts, known as cohesion and coherence. Cohesion and coherence work together rather than independently in helping us to understand ways in which texts make sense. Cohesion refers to ways in which syntactic, lexical and phonological features connect within and between sentences in a text. It is a reference to structural devices. Coherence is more to do with semantic features, referring to the way or ways text makes consistent sense to the reader with or without the help of cohesion.

In the transformation of the extracts of the TRC report, we will attempt to exhibit a use of language that is simple, direct, economic and familiar. We will omit needless words and use sentence structures that are evident and unambiguous. I will try to display an orderly and logical organization and structure of the text.

Differing background knowledge and cultural assumptions visible in South Africa's multi-lingual and multi-cultural classrooms may make it difficult to interpret the TRC text, which corresponds with the writers' intentions. Even the transformed text may lead to varied interpretations. If this diversity is seen as resource, its contribution may be invaluable. Readers from diverse linguistic and cultural backgrounds may have important contributions to make in interpretation of texts. To determine the nature of a learner's competence, we must create a situation that allows her/him to display that competence. We must recognize and prevent problems associated with inappropriate difficulty.

The learners' inability to engage effectively with the TRC text, points to the fact that it was inappropriate to take it into the classroom in its original form. Hymes' appropriateness criterion questions whether it is appropriate to take it into the classroom in its present form when the learners clearly demonstrated that they are unable to cope with it. All the above are relevant when decoding the text and making it more accessible.

This section deals specifically with the changes made to the original TRC texts. Text A.1. is the original text, and A.2. is the rewritten text followed by an explanation for why I made specific changes.

*Volume 2, Truth and Reconciliation Commission of South Africa Report.
Chapter 1, Page 40, Paragraph 166.*

TEXT A.1: ORIGINAL: 1990-1994: The transitional phase

The period from February 1990 changed the logic and the rules, written or unwritten, governing the contest for power in South Africa. In July 1989, President PW Botha formally received Mr Nelson Mandela to tea at Tuynhuys, signalling the beginning of open negotiations. In September 1989 Mr FW de Klerk became president of South Africa, and shortly afterwards independence elections were held in Namibia. In February 1990, De Klerk announced the unbanning of proscribed organizations including the SACP, ANC, and PAC, and released Mandela. The next four years saw intensive negotiations towards a democratic transition.

As explored in the Literature Review, I argued that CDA would inform the shape the texts take when they are modified and re-introduced to the learners. To ensure that social and hidden meanings are not lost, special attention had to be paid to the writers' choice to record the narratives objectively and their emphasis on recording the facts. The writers chose to record the TRC narratives in standardised, formal, academic language, as the original text illustrates. This depersonalizes it and removes the readers from the reality. In Text A.1. above, a painful period of our history is recorded. Its literal meaning reduces the complexity of people's experiences. In this extract, the landmark unbanning of

political parties and the euphoria that accompanied it, that is, the hidden, social meaning, is lost.

TEXT A.2: REWRITTEN: 1990-1994: A period of change

Important changes took place in South Africa from February 1990. The old government and the freedom fighters had to do things differently.

New ways of talking to each other had to be found. They could no longer see each other as enemies. Talks started when Nelson Mandela met PW Botha for tea at Tuynhuys in July 1989.

In September 1989 FW de Klerk became president. Soon afterwards independent elections were held in Namibia. In February 1990, de Klerk unbanned illegal groups like ANC, SACP and PAC. Mandela was set free at that time. For the next four years, leading up to the elections in 1994, serious talks took place to establish a new, democratic South Africa.

First, I chose to change the title from “*The transitional phase*” to “*A period of change*”. I anticipated that learners would struggle with the word “*transitional*”.

The original was one paragraph which was changed into a three paragraph text.

Original: The period from February 1990 changed the logic and the rules, written or unwritten, governing the contest for power in South Africa.

Rewritten: *Important changes took place in South Africa from February 1990. The old government and the freedom fighters had to do things differently.*

New ways of talking to each other had to be found. They could no longer see each other as enemies.

Learners struggled with the underlined section in the original and I therefore changed it and identified who were contesting for power. This entailed creating a new paragraph to qualify what had to change. At the same time the learners had to realize that they saw each other as enemies who now had to sit around a table and talk to each other.

In the rewritten text we changed the word “negotiations” to “talks” and “proscribed organizations” to “illegal groups”. We decided to retain the acronyms SACP, ANC and PAC as they are commonly used.

A second example.

Volume 2, Truth and Reconciliation Commission of South Africa Report.

Chapter 3, Page 181, Paragraph 67.

TEST B.1: ORIGINAL: The use of force on crowds and gatherings

Submissions to the Commission have shown that political and police authorities actively encouraged the use of harsh and punitive methods and many police officers felt obliged to use maximum force. When police were accused of overstepping their extremely wide legal boundaries, they defended and covered up their actions. In addition to the indemnity provisions prevailing during the states of emergency, police accused of using excessive force could rely on the full support of their superiors, the silence of their peers (who would often be used as witnesses) and the indulgence of security-conscious judicial officers. Press restrictions ensured the absence of the media during dispersal and unrest situations, further shielding police actions from censure.

TEST B.2: REWRITTEN: *The use of force on crowds and gatherings*

In this example I show the changes made to the original first. The underlined words in the modified section are words that were changed. The underlined words in the original, which appears under the modified section indicates the words that I assumed the learners would struggle with.

Cases that were brought before the Truth and Reconciliation Commission shows that political leaders and police leaders actively encouraged the use of cruel and violent ways to deal with crowds at marches and rallies. They wanted to punish the people who participated. Many police officers felt it was their duty to use maximum force.

[Submissions to the Commission have shown that political and police authorities actively encouraged the use of harsh and punitive methods and many police officers felt obliged to use maximum force.]

Although the police were allowed by law to use force, some still over-stepped these boundaries. When they were accused of being too forceful, they defended and covered up their actions.

[When police were accused of overstepping their extremely wide legal boundaries, they defended and covered up their actions.]

They were protected by the laws of the state and were given extra power during a state of emergency. When a state of emergency was called, people were not allowed to meet in groups and were arrested when they tried to have meetings or rallies.

[In addition to the indemnity provisions prevailing during the states of emergency, ...]

I felt that it was necessary to explain “state of emergency” as I did not expect the learners to be familiar with it.

Policemen who were accused of using unnecessary force could depend on the support of their superiors. Other policemen who were on duty with them and saw what their friends had done would not speak out. They would be witnesses and say that the victim was lying. These policemen were not found guilty because they enjoyed the sympathy of lawyers and judges.

[...police accused of using excessive force could rely on the full support of their superiors, the silence of their peers (who would often be used as witnesses) and the indulgence of security-conscious judicial officers.]

The police were further protected in unrest situations because the media were not allowed to film or write about what happened. This ensured that the public were kept unaware of what was really happening and did not believe the victims when they said that they were beaten and shot.

Press restrictions ensured the absence of the media during dispersal and unrest situations, further shielding police actions from censure.

3.6.3. The results of the Cloze Procedure tests need to be validated. Therefore, using the same extracts, I employ another readability test, Flesch Reading Ease Formula and Flesch-Kincaid grade level score to verify the results. The Flesch/Flesch–Kincaid Readability Tests are readability tests designed to indicate how difficult a reading passage is to understand. There are two tests, the Flesch Reading Ease, and the Flesch–Kincaid Grade Level. A brief outline of these tests follows.

3.6.3.1. Flesch Reading Ease Formula

In the Flesch Reading Ease test, higher scores indicate material that is easier to read; lower numbers mark harder-to-read passages. The formula for the Flesch Reading Ease Score test is:

$$206.835 - 1.015 \left(\frac{\text{total words}}{\text{total sentences}} \right) - 84.6 \left(\frac{\text{total syllables}}{\text{total words}} \right)$$

where total syllables/total words = average number of syllables per word (ASW) and total words/total sentences = average sentence length (ASL).

Systematically select 100 word samples from the text and determine the word length. This is done by counting the number of syllables per 100 words (NSYLL).

Determine the average number of words per 100 words to establish the sentence length (W/S). These values are substituted in the regression equation:

$RE = 206,835 - (0,846 \times NSYLL) - (1, 015 \times W/S)$. Reading ease represents the grade level which would have been attained in order to read the passage. Percentage is added to determine the age of the reader.

The three constants in the equation were derived statistically after analyzing the success of people of known reading ability in reading selected passages.

The formula for the Flesch Reading Ease score is:

$$206.835 - (1.015 \times ASL) - (84.6 \times ASW)$$

ASL: average sentence length

(the number of words divided by the number of sentences)

ASW: average number of syllables per word

(the number of syllables divided by the number of words)

3.6.3.2. Flesch-Kincaid Grade Level Score

The grade level is calculated with the following formula:

$$0.39 \left(\frac{\text{total words}}{\text{total sentences}} \right) + 11.8 \left(\frac{\text{total syllables}}{\text{total words}} \right) - 15.59$$

The result is a number that corresponds with a grade level. For example, a score of 6.1 would indicate that the text is understandable by an average student in 6th grade. The text is rated on a U.S. grade school level. The formula for the Flesch-Kincaid Grade Level is:

$$[.39 \times \text{ASL}] + [11.8 \times \text{ASW}] - 15.59$$

ASL: average sentence length

(the number of words divided by the number of sentences)

ASW: average number of syllables per word

(the number of syllables divided by the number of words)

Example of the texts for the planned Flesch Reading Test

*Volume 2, Truth and Reconciliation Commission of South Africa Report.
Chapter 1, Page 40, Paragraph 166.*

TEXT A: ORIGINAL: 1990-1994: The transitional phase

The period from February 1990 changed the logic and the rules, written or unwritten, governing the contest for power in South Africa. In July 1989, President PW Botha formally received Mr Nelson Mandela to tea at Tuynhuys, signalling the beginning of open negotiations. In September 1989 Mr FW de Klerk became president of South Africa, and shortly afterwards independence elections were held in Namibia. In February 1990, De Klerk announced the unbanning of proscribed organizations including the SACP, ANC, and PAC, and released Mandela. The next four years saw intensive negotiations towards a democratic transition.

TEXT B: REWRITTEN: 1990-1994: A period of change

Important changes took place in South Africa from February 1990. The old government and the freedom fighters had to do things differently.

New ways of talking to each other had to be found. They could no longer see each other as enemies. Talks started when Nelson Mandela met PW Botha for tea at Tuynhuys in July 1989.

In September 1989 FW de Klerk became president. Soon afterwards independent elections were held in Namibia. In February 1990, de Klerk unbanned illegal groups like ANC, SACP and PAC. Mandela was set free at that time. For the next four years, leading up to the elections in 1994, serious talks took place to establish a new, democratic South Africa. (Volume 2 TRC of South Africa Report Chapter 3, Page 181, Paragraph 67).

TEXT C: ORIGINAL: The use of force on crowds and gatherings

Submissions to the Commission have shown that political and police authorities actively encouraged the use of harsh and punitive methods and many police officers felt obliged to use maximum force. When police were accused of overstepping their extremely wide legal boundaries, they defended and covered up their actions. In addition to the indemnity provisions prevailing during the states of emergency, police accused of using excessive force could rely on the full support of their superiors, the silence of their peers (who would often be used as witnesses) and the indulgence of security-conscious judicial officers. Press restrictions ensured the absence of the media during dispersal and unrest situations, further shielding police actions from censure.

TEXT D: REWRITTEN: *The use of force on crowds and gatherings*

Cases that were brought before the Truth and Reconciliation Commission shows that political leaders and police leaders actively encouraged the use of cruel and violent ways to deal with crowds at marches and rallies. They wanted to punish the people who participated. Many police officers felt it was their duty to use maximum force.

Although the police were allowed by law to use force, some still over-stepped these boundaries. When they were accused of being too forceful, they defended and covered up their actions. They were protected by the laws of the state and were given extra power during a state of emergency. When a state of emergency was called, people were not allowed to meet in groups and were arrested when they tried to have meetings or rallies.

Policemen who were accused of using unnecessary force could depend on the support of their superiors. Other policemen who were on duty with them and saw what their friends had done would not speak out. They would be witnesses and say that the victim was lying. These policemen were not found guilty because they enjoyed the sympathy of lawyers and judges.

The police were further protected in unrest situations because the media were not allowed to film or write about what happened. This ensured that the public were kept unaware of what was really happening and did not believe the victims when they said that they were beaten and shot.

Learners will then be given the rewritten texts. Cloze Procedure will again be used to establish the learner's ability to read the texts. For the purposes of triangulation, I plan not to rely on the Cloze Procedure exercises as an exclusive measure of readability. In addition I will use the Flesch-Kincaid grade level score, the Flesch reading ease formula as well as comprehension tests.

3.7. How Will I Measure the Outcomes and Results?

The gap between reader ability and text difficulty will determine the extent of comprehension as measured by the proportion of correct answers on the Cloze Procedure exercises. The number of correct answers for both the original texts and the modified texts will be determined and these will in turn be assessed against each other. The modified texts, as well as the original texts, will be assessed utilizing the Flesch-Kincaid grade level score and the Flesch reading ease. Finally, the learners' answers in response to questions pertaining to how they feel about the exercise will be summarized.

A limitation of the research was that it was only conducted at one institution. Whilst this is a limitation of the data, it is also a strength, as it provides a snapshot of the evidence to encourage further research. Another limitation that one cannot ignore, is that since the 60s and 70s simplification of texts has always been discouraged. This approach has been rejected as invalid, but I chose to pursue it given the low reading levels. The aim of the adaptation is to give access. Since the learners were unfamiliar with the genre at work, the contextual textual form was foreign to them which made them struggle with the language use and conventions. My endeavour was to empower the learners and adapt it to their required reading levels, since they have acquired competence in a discourse familiar to them.

CHAPTER 4: ANALYSIS OF RESULTS

The main objective of this study was to establish if the language use of TRC report was accessible to teenage learners. I thought that the language it was encoded in was too difficult for teenage learners to decode, especially since they were never the intended readership. The writers of the TRC report elected to encode the narratives in a sophisticated and complex language.

Firstly, I established that the language use of the original TRC extracts was in fact too difficult for teenage learners to engage with it effectively. The aim was to determine the readability of the text to establish if the learners were able to comprehend it. Secondly, I modified the text in an attempt to make it more accessible to Grade 10 and 11 learners.

As elaborated on in the previous chapter, information for the study was elicited from three sources of data.

- Cloze Procedure exercises on original text.
- Cloze Procedure exercises on the modified texts.
- Comprehension exercises on the modified texts.

The initial findings from each of these data sources I wish to consider as follows:

DATA ANALYSIS: ORIGINAL TEXTS

DATA ANALYSIS: MODIFIED TEXTS

4.1. Data Analysis: Original Texts

The following three classes were chosen to assess the TRC texts.

- 1. GRADE TEN: English Primary Language, 32 learners.**
- 2. GRADE TEN: English as First Additional Language, 29 learners.**
- 3. GRADE ELEVEN: English as First Additional Language, 33 learners.**

These classes were chosen because the learning areas; *Language, Literacy and Communication* and *Social Sciences*, are both able to introduce the TRC without significant disruption. I thought that it was important that the learners not judge the lessons as different to the norm.

Both English Additional Language classes and English as Language of learning and teaching (LOLT) classes were selected to determine if there was a significant difference in the results when these learners were faced with difficult texts. Grade Ten and Eleven learners were chosen to broaden the sample. These interactions took place during normal English and History lessons so as to minimize disruption.

The learners' response to the Cloze Procedure exercises of the original text follows.

4.2. Cloze Procedure: Test Averages

GRADE	LOLT	No. of learners	Correct Answers	Averages
Gr.10	Eng. Primary Lang.	32	2.3	4.9
Gr.10	Eng. Additional Lang.	29	2	5.8
Gr.11	Eng. Additional Lang.	33	3.5	4.5
Total		94	7.8	15.2

These results illustrate that the learners struggled with the Cloze Procedure exercises. Their answers only displayed 8% correct answers. The Cloze Procedure exercises selected to determine the readability of the TRC report proved too difficult for most readers. The complex and sophisticated language of the report impeded learners' comprehension of the sample. English as Additional Language learners as well as English as Medium of Instruction learners, both grades 10 and 11 experienced difficulties. It would seem from this data that the language use in the report was too complicated for the reading level of majority of these learners. The large number of unknown words and the frequency of difficult words hampered understanding. Learners failed to recognize individual words and were unable to use the syntactic and semantic information within a sentence to predict the missing words (Scott & Macdonald-Ross 1995).

Learners found insufficient syntactic and semantic cues. The following two examples illustrate this point.

Example: Syntactic cues

White South Africans were told by _____ parents, schools, the media and many churches that black people were different...[their] (Vol. 2 Chapter 1 Page 6).

The learners' knowledge of syntax and grammar led some of them to assume that the missing word was part of a list and they therefore filled in words like *friends* and *family*.

Others assumed that the missing word in this instance was an adjective and therefore filled in words like *racist* and *uneducated*.

Semantic Cues

They became 'the other', a _____ remove from what they were to _____ 'the enemy'. [short] [become] (TRC Report).

According to Sorrel (1990) readability measures syntactic and semantic complexity and this in turn predicts the difficulty of text comprehension. Thus, these readers read word by word and the missing word hampered their understanding. They tended to concentrate on the decoding aspect of reading and therefore meaning eluded them.

Although the number of possibilities was limited, the context failed to assist learners to fill the gaps. Learners looking for cues within the same sentence and in different sentences in the paragraph were not always assisted in this way. In the same sentence the meaning could not always be determined by looking for context in the information preceding or following the missing word.

Textual Clues

With the emergence of the bantustan _____, they were told that blacks were _____ even South African. [scheme] [not].

Whites were the South Africans while their fellow black residents were now foreigners, _____ sojourners in white South Africa...[temporary].

Textual clues were often hampered by the learners' lack of previous knowledge of the content. The learners' inability to identify the missing words or to insert satisfactory substitutes for the original words seems to suggest that the learners failed to comprehend the content of the text. Learners did not have access to both genre and discourse at work in the text. Their failure to recognise the genre and discourse could be because they are not members of the particular sociocultural group it was intended for. "*Discourse carries meanings about the nature of the institution from which it derives; genre carries meaning about the conventional social occasions on which texts arise*" (Kress 1985: 20). These learners did not have access to the discourse and genre. This created difficulties because of the particular formal features of the TRC report and the conventional ways the writers chose to record the narratives.

The large number of unfilled spaces also suggests that learners were unable to assimilate the text. They did not make reasonable predictions. They were unable to use semantic and syntactic clues to predict the following words which would have aided them to fill in the missing word. This, in turn hampered fluency and comprehension. Stanovich and Stanovich (1995) argue that poor readers guess from the context out of necessity because their decoding skills are so weak (1995: 92).

If the important contemporary history of the TRC report is to be introduced to these learners, it cannot be done in its present form. For meaningful interaction between the reader and the text it must be readable and understandable to secondary school learners.

The complex language the report is encoded in, points to the fact that it should be decoded and transformed into accessible language suitable to their level to allow them to engage with it effectively. According to Harris and Hodges (1995) comprehension occurs when students construct meaning through thoughtful interaction with the text. The results show that the learners failed to interact with the text. This indicates that they did not understand it.

The table below is the learners' responses to whether they enjoyed the exercise or not.

4.3. Did learners enjoy the exercise?

The table below represents the actual responses of the learners.

GRADE	LOLT	No. of learners	Enjoyed exercise	Did not enjoy
Gr.10	Eng. Primary Lang.	32	17	15
Gr.10	Eng. Additional Lang.	29	13	16
Gr.11	Eng. Additional Lang.	33	26	7
Total		94	56	38

60% (56 out of 94) of the learners indicated that they enjoyed the exercise. By the same token, 40% did not enjoy the exercise. Below I furnish some of the reasons why the learners claimed to enjoy the exercise. The comments I include is a summary of the most common responses.

4.3.1. "Yes," learners enjoyed the exercise.

1.	Gr.10 English, LOLT : 32 Learners. Reasons for YES. (17) It was interesting and it tested and enlarged their vocabulary. They learned more about the TRC, Apartheid and the history of South Africa.
2.	Gr.10 English, Additional Language: 29 Learners. Reasons for YES. (13) They learned more about the TRC, Apartheid and the history of South Africa, our country, racism and how blacks were treated then.
3.	Gr.11 English, Additional Language: 33 Learners. Reasons for YES. (26) Interesting, they learned more about the TRC, Apartheid and South Africa. Learned from the mistakes made and learned new words.

The learners' comments listed below are not quotes but a summary of the most common ones, pertaining to why they did not enjoy the exercise.

4.3.2. "No," learners did not enjoy the exercise.

1. Gr.10 English, LOLT : 32 Learners.

Reasons for NO. (15)

Too many difficult words. Needed dictionaries.

Generally not interested in History, the past and politics.

Struggled and felt stupid. 3 learners failed to make choices.

2. Gr.10 English, Additional Language: 29 Learners

Reasons for NO. (16)

Language, sentences and words were unfamiliar.

Lack of knowledge and interest in the past, the TRC and Apartheid.

3. Gr.11 English, Additional Language: 33 Learners.

Reasons for NO. (7)

Difficult to understand and many new words.

Afrikaans speakers struggle with English.

The following table reflects the learners' responses to whether the exercise was easy.

4.4. Learners who found the exercise easy.

GRADE	LOLT	No. of learners	Experienced Difficulty	Exercise was easy
Gr.10	Eng. Primary Lang.	32	22	7
Gr.10	Eng. Additional Lang.	29	28	1
Gr.11	Eng. Additional Lang.	33	24	9
Total		94	74	17

18 % found it easy and 78% observed that it was difficult to complete the exercise. Although the learners grappled with the exercise and failed to complete it successfully, many learners responded positively to the content. 60% (56 out of 94) learners indicated a desire to learn more about Apartheid, the past and the TRC. The following table reflects the learners' responses to whether the exercise was difficult. I summarise their comments.

4.4.1. Learners experienced difficulty.

1. Gr.10 English, LOLT : 32 Learners.

DIFFICULT (22)

Most learners cited the difficult language use as a reason.

They felt that the words were too difficult and they therefore had problems understanding it. Their lack of knowledge and interest in the past, the TRC and Apartheid hampered their understanding.

2. Gr.10 English, Additional Language: 29 Learners

DIFFICULT (28)

The most common difficulties were associated with the following:

Language: Words, sentences and the level of English usage.

History: Lack of knowledge about the past, the TRC and Apartheid.

3. Gr.11 English, Additional Language: 33 Learners.

DIFFICULT (24)

Learners agreed that their problems stemmed from difficult words.

They were unfamiliar with the words of the TRC and History as a school subject. Additional language learners felt the English was difficult.

The learners' responses suggest that they recognised why they experienced problems. The large number of incorrect answers suggests that they paid no or little attention to the text itself and failed to use their knowledge of language to assist them. They relied too heavily on the words before and after the blank spaces and did not focus on the sentence, its structure or the paragraph itself.

4.4.2. Learners thought the exercise was easy.

1. EASY (7)

These learners felt that they understood the paragraph.

Those who have an affinity for History found it easy.

Learners' comments:

"more exercises like this will teach us about our past"

"Too little information about the 'Coloured' people"

"there were other possible correct answers"

"dictionaries would have helped"

"We should learn more about what happened to our parents and their parents"

2. EASY (1)

The learner felt that while the words in the passage were difficult, those that needed to fill in the blank spaces were easy.

Learners' comments:

"Would prefer the exercise in Afrikaans"

"TRC is something great"

3. EASY (9)

Once we discussed the answers, these learners felt that they understood.

Two learners stated that repeated readings would provide the correct answers.

Learners' comments:

"Would like to hear more about the TRC"

"Whites were cruel and although South Africa has changed, it still exists"

"Wish to learn more about our past"

"Difficult to complete if you do not understand"

"There were too few clues to complete the exercise correctly"

"we must know about the past"

"why didn't anyone stop Apartheid?"

Rosenblatt (1982) argues that reading evokes thought, feelings and personal insights and associations. I was surprised that so many learners identified the exercise as easy when so few answers were correct. These results support my earlier statement that learners were stimulated and that enjoyment and the ease with which they completed the exercise were not associated with correct answers.

I observed, contrary to my expectations, that some learners (20%: 21 out of 94) clearly communicated a lack of interest in the history of South Africa and the past. They are under the incorrect impression that they are unaffected by the past and as a motivation to embrace the future, they claimed that they would prefer to forget the past. The following comments were attributed to these learners. I quote some of them.

"I'm not interested in the past"

"Apartheid is gone, we must focus on the future"

"I'm not interested in history, we must concentrate on our new democracy"

"Forget about the past, we are in the new South Africa"

These teenagers should be made aware of the dialogue that exists between past and present and a focus on contemporary history may assist them to understand their country and themselves. They have to grasp who they were, to understand who they are. It is essential that young South Africans are conscious of the past so they are able to recognize why healing is necessary and be aware of why the atrocities of the past should never be repeated. The legacy of apartheid lives on and the youth must ensure that they do not bear the brunt of it but reap the benefits of our new democracy. Their claim to be unaffected by our apartheid past is a fallacy. Where they live, the school they attend, the jobs their parents do and almost every other facet of their lives are influenced by it. Their comments only serve to reinforce the significance of introducing the TRC into the classroom.

Despite the fact that 20% claimed that they were not interested in the past, an unexpected finding was that the majority of learners (60%) were enthusiastic to learn more about this period of our history. Their request to know more is demonstrated by the following comments: I quote some of them.

"More exercises like this will teach us about our past"

"Too little information about the 'Coloured' people"

"We should learn more about what happened to our parents and their parents"

“TRC is something great”

“Wish to learn more about our past”

“Would like to hear more about the TRC”

“Whites were cruel and although South Africa has changed, it still exists”

“we must know about the past”

“why didn’t anyone stop Apartheid?”

This cry for knowledge about the past can be tapped into. These comments display a desire to learn about the past. My act of taking TRC texts into the classroom for research purposes resulted in an eager interest which should not be ignored. The following quote supports my assertion that this interest in the TRC should be tapped into. *“Far more important than readability is interest. When students have strong interest in what they read, they frequently transcend the so-called reading level. Indeed, many educators and researchers consider interest to be a paramount factor in all learning.”* (Worthy 1998).

4.5. Data Analysis: Modified Texts

Learners were then given the rewritten texts. Cloze Procedure was again employed to establish the learner's ability to read the texts.

The following three classes were chosen to assess the TRC texts.

- 1. GRADE TEN: English as First Additional Language, 33 learners.**
- 2. GRADE TEN: English as First Additional Language, 29 learners.**
- 3. GRADE ELEVEN: English as Language and learning and teaching, 45 learners.**

The tables below show the calculated averages of the learners' response to the Cloze Procedure exercises of the modified text.

Correct Answer	Class Tot	7	8	11	12	13	19	20	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32	33	35	Tot Mark	Ave Mark
11ENG.1	45	1	1		1		2	3	3	7	4	2	1	2	2	4	1	1	2	2	2	1079	24

Correct Answer	Class Tot	1	2	3	4	5	8	9	10	13	14	15	23	24	25	Tot Mark	Ave Mark
10 ENG.2	38	1	1	1	1	2	2	6	2	2	4	8	2	4	2	504	13

Correct Answer	Class Tot	4	5	7	8	9	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	23	27	Tot Mark	Ave Mark
10 ENG.2	37	4	2	2	3	2	1	2	2	5	1	1	3	1	2	2	1	1	1	472	13

The difference in performance between the Grade 10 and Grade 11 results was far more evident. The performance of the Grade Ten English Additional language class and the English Primary Language class displayed similar results. The language proficiency of the Grade 11 Primary Language classes enabled them to get better results. I expected the learners to perform much better on the modified text, but as the results show, only 41.6% of the answers were correct. As displayed below, the Flesch reading ease formula and Flesch grade level indicated that the modified texts were appropriate for Grade 10.

FLESCH READING EASE FORMULA

TEXT A

TEXT B

COUNTS

95	WORDS	277
524	CHARACTERS	1411
1	PARAGRAPHS	3
5	SENTENCES	22

AVERAGES

5	SENTENCE PER PARAGRAPH	2
19	WORDS PER SENTENCE	12.1
5.3	CHARACTERS PER WORD	4.9

READABILITY

20%	PASSIVE SENTENCES	27%
19.2	FLESCH READING EASE	40.7
12	FLESCH GRADE LEVEL	10.6

TEXT C**TEXT D****COUNTS**

113	WORDS	239
647	CHARACTERS	1164
1	PARAGRAPHS	4
4	SENTENCES	13

AVERAGES

4	SENTENCE PER PARAGRAPH	3.2
28.2	WORDS PER SENTENCE	18.3
5.6	CHARACTERS PER WORD	4.8

READABILITY

25%	PASSIVE SENTENCES	38%
23.1	FLESCH READING EASE	59.6
17	FLESCH GRADE LEVEL	9.5

CHAPTER FIVE: INTERPRETATION OF RESULTS

A surprising result was that although the learners struggled with the exercise, 60% (56 out of 94) of them indicated that they enjoyed the exercise. Since so many of them failed to insert correct answers into the gapped text, I expected far more learners to state that they did not enjoy the exercise. Contrary to my expectations, only 40% (38 out of 94) claimed that they did not enjoy it, especially the Grade 11 Additional Language class where learners only had 3.5 correct answers, yet only 7 out of 33 did not enjoy the exercise. This implies that they do not necessarily associate incorrect answers with disappointment. They were stimulated by the exercise and wanted to know more about the past, Apartheid and the TRC.

According to Bormuth (1966) and Klare (1984), for learners to successfully do Cloze Procedure, a range of skills is required. Learners must recognize individual words. They have to use syntactic and semantic information within a sentence to predict the missing word. They should use local context, semantic and syntactic, of other sentences to aid prediction. They should be able to skim to recap what has been read and be prepared to revise hypotheses about meaning in the light of new information and scan ahead for cues to aid prediction. Notwithstanding my stated reservations about Cloze Procedure, the results of the Cloze Procedure exercises prove that these learners are not equipped with these skills. A lack of these skills will hamper comprehension.

Despite the results of the Cloze Procedure, the learners were able to answer the comprehension tests. Unfortunately their answers were not an indication of comprehension as most of them simply quoted from the text. This kind of testing is common at school, across all learning areas, and learners have a strategy to answer them. According to the Rand Reading Study Group (2002), "... *struggling readers learn to disguise reading problems and manage to get by without really comprehending what they read.*" They paid far more attention to the text in answering the comprehension test than they did when they attempted the Cloze Procedure exercises. This could be because they struggled not only with the processing skills which made identification and decoding difficult but also experienced problems with comprehension and reasoning skills which are necessary for interpretation and inferencing. According to Chun (1997), "*In the process of text comprehension, the learner actively selects relevant information from what is presented and constructs mental representations of the text's linguistic surface structure, which involves the interaction of the linguistic features of the text and the reader's language proficiency.*" Because of the learners' low levels of language proficiency, their answers did not display that they interacted with the text meaningfully as they repeatedly simply quoted the answer from the words they recognised in the text, which matched the words in the question. Therefore, there was a lack of "correspondence between the way in which a message is encoded by the writer and the way in which it is decoded by the reader" (Alderson 1976: 16).

Their answers to initial the Cloze Procedure exercises also displayed that the learners failed to recognise the semantic and syntactic cues within the text. The gapped text, the

difficult words and the unfamiliar subject-area impeded their comprehension of the text. This was evident when they failed to insert a pronoun where necessary in the Cloze Procedure exercise. There was a tendency to just fill the gap, paying little or no attention to the text. Learners tended to focus on the word/s before the gap, rather than focus on the sentences and their structure, and their knowledge of the language. Although they performed better when the text was rewritten, their past learning experiences and language development did not assist them to decode the text. To sum up, reading comprehension was affected by the difficulty of the text, the vocabulary of the words used in the text, and the (learners) readers' unfamiliarity with the subject matter. They were unable to understand the text and construct meaning from it. Their reading difficulties became apparent when they were unable to grasp the meaning of the text. Their inadequate vocabulary hampered comprehension. *"Competent reading is an active process in which the reader calls on experience, language, and schemata ... to anticipate and understand the author's written language"* (Anders & Guzzetti 1996: 7).

When I tapped into these learners' September Examination results (Paper One) to ascertain their performance in comprehension tests, it supported my finding that they were not competent readers. These results concurred that they generally struggle with comprehension tests. The table below illustrates the same three classes' results for Question One: Comprehension: Total Mark = 35

Grade 11 Eng. Primary Language: Average mark: 18.6/35 – 53%
Grade 10 Eng. Primary Language: Average mark: 10.8/35 – 30.8%
Grade 10 Eng. First Additional Language: Average mark: 10.7/35 – 30.5%

These results show that their scores on the modified Cloze Procedure exercises cannot be seen in isolation. When one considers them in relation to their comprehension test results, then the outcome is in line with their general performance. *“One of the most vexing problems facing middle and secondary teachers today is that many students come into their classrooms without the prerequisite knowledge, skills, or dispositions to read and comprehend the materials placed before them”* (Rand Reading Study Group 2002).

These results are further supported by the Grade 8 Literacy tests conducted by The University of new South Wales in 2004. There were 131 learners, and their mean score was 20.82%. Therefore their performance in the modified Cloze Procedure exercises produced workable results and there is always room to enlarge the learners' vocabulary, introduce new words and extend their knowledge. Teaching new vocabulary that appears in a reading selection guarantees that there will be fewer unfamiliar concepts in the material to be read. Text comprehension may improve when readers actively relate the ideas in print to their own knowledge and experiences and construct mental representations in memory.

The results of the readability tests were significantly influenced by the learners' literacy levels. Cummins (2001: 61-68) warns that different contexts make use of different linguistic and cognitive demands, and these contexts should be considered when assessing language proficiency. The modified TRC texts were aimed at Additional Language learners in Grade 10. The fact that they failed to achieve optimal results is perturbing as they are expected to be able to perform the following tasks; name, classify,

generalise, infer, predict, evaluate and hypothesise, which are all higher order thinking skills. Learners are required to understand linguistically and conceptually demanding texts in content areas and be able to use this language in a coherent way in their own writing (Cummins 2000: 68-69). Outcomes Based Education, with reference to Curriculum 2005 (C2005) “... gives priority to higher-level competencies, such as, critical thinking, effective communication, technological applications and complex problem solving” (NQF: Working Document – DoE June 1996). Reading and comprehension are processes of extracting meaning from written texts. This involves a complex cluster of skills. Comprehension at higher levels depends on success at lower levels. Lower levels are letter and words recognition skills, whereas higher level skills are comprehension of sentences, paragraphs and longer passages, including the use of different strategies for skimming, scanning and reviewing (Scott & Macdonald-Ross 1995).

Given the fact that the learners failed to successfully read the TRC text which, I assumed, was aimed at their level, how can we determine the appropriate norm? What tasks and functions do learners have to perform in learning situations; what language knowledge and linguistic skills are required to perform these tasks and fulfill those functions? The development level descriptors for the National Qualifications Framework (NQF) prepared for SAQA by the NQF (The NQF: An overview, a SAQA publication 2000), identify them as follows: Pertaining to grammatical knowledge, the NQF expects Grade 10 learners to have a vocabulary of about 8000 words. These include words for learning like: name, describe, illustrate, differentiate, compare and contrast, demonstrate, motivate

and explain. The results of the Cloze Procedure exercise imply that learners would struggle with most of these. In addition, these learners need competence in understanding, constructing and using derived and compound words and complex sentences. The NQF clearly states that the learners need knowledge of derivatives, compound words, roots, prefixes, suffixes, compound derivation, synonyms, antonyms, homonyms, an ability to use the past perfect progressive tense, direct and reported speech, modals, the third conditional and passive voice in the future. Learners at this level should be able to recognize connotation, denotation, implied and multiple meanings. In terms of reading and comprehension, Curriculum 2005 advocates a text-based approach which explores how texts work. It involves reading, viewing and analysing texts to understand how they are produced and what their effects are. Texts are explored in relation to their contexts. The approach involves attention to formal aspects of language, (grammar and vocabulary). In order to talk about texts, learners need a “meta-language”: they need to develop a vocabulary of words necessary to describe different aspects of grammar, vocabulary, style and writing genres. Learners are expected to become competent, confident and critical readers, writers, viewers and designers of texts. These targets are very high and a series of tests indicate – which I discuss in the paragraph that follows – that learners have not met these standards.

The results of my Cloze Procedure exercises illustrated that the learners’ literacy levels are low. This view is supported by a growing body of evidence from a range of tests conducted in our schools to determine literacy and numeracy levels. Recent literacy tests in South Africa suggests that we are way behind when we compare our literacy levels to

the grade levels of other countries when South Africa participated in the 2004 Schools International Assessment Task – Language in English (University of New South Wales, Educational Testing Centre in 2004). The school that I used as a site for this research scored a mean score of 20.82 out of 131 Grade 8 learners. The Western Cape Province scored a mean score of 23.68 out of 33757 Grade 8 learners.

There were 80 questions in total, which expected the learners to display the following skills. The section, Reading-literary, expected the learners to; interpret related pieces of information, interpret figurative language, infer from related pieces of information, identify metaphor, interpret affective language, infer mood or tone, interpret multiple pieces of information, interpret function of structural feature, identify figurative language, interpret stylistic element of text, interpret multiple pieces of information, infer writer's intention, interpret main idea in part of text, interpret related pieces of information and infer meaning from figurative language. The section, Reading-factual, expected the learners to; interpret related pieces of information, identify sequence, interpret idiom, interpret multiple pieces of information, interpret data, interpret function of structural feature, distinguish fact from opinion, infer writer's intention, interpret a single piece of information, interpret related pieces of information, interpret main idea in part of text and in whole text, infer from a single piece of information, interpret meaning from graphics and text and paraphrase information. The section, Reading-textual, expected learners to; identify the meaning of words, identify figure of speech: personification, identify synonym, interpret style and meaning of a passage and identify pun. In the section, Spelling, they were expected to identify spelling errors. And in the

section, Language-syntactical, they were expected to; correct grammatical usage, correct usage of punctuation (paragraph), correct usage of a comma, correct usage of quotation marks, correct usage of preposition and correct use of pronoun.

The table below shows the particular skills areas that were tested and the school's areas of weakness.

Reading – literary	25%
Reading – factual	28%
Reading – textual	24%
Spelling	31%
Language – syntactical	21%

These results do not distinguish between Primary and Additional language. Carson (2001) warns that the target language of the school, that is, its dominant discourse, represents more than just a means of transferring information. It is instrumental in determining the norms for successful learning and it provides the modal of excellence against which learners' linguistic behaviour is measured. Failure to meet the linguistic requirements can affect the learners' self confidence and, consequently, have a negative impact on their educational success. These results are further supported by UNESCO SACMEQ 1 & II 1995 & 2003 surveys (The UNESCO Southern African Consortium for Monitoring Educational Quality) (SACMEQ). Their results confirmed that literacy in South Africa is in crisis.

Below are the findings related to Grade 6 reading levels.

- 50% of SA Grade 6 learners across all race groups were reading only at Grades 1-3 levels;
- Only 18% of these could read for meaning.

(SACMEQ website <http://www.sacmeq.org/indicate.htm>)

In terms of international comparisons, South Africa fared poorly on all levels. A study which examined 12 countries in Africa revealed that South African Grade 4 learners have among the worst numeracy, literacy and life skills in Africa. South Africa scored an average of 30% for numeracy, last of the 12 countries; 48% for literacy, eighth and second last for life skills where we scored 47% (Department of Education. (2000) Joint International Unesco-Unicef Monitoring Learning Achievement (MLA) Project: *Education for all: The South African Assessment Report*. Pretoria). The results of these tests have serious implications for education in South Africa.

According to Taylor (2003: 41), *"Studies conducted in South Africa from 1998 to 2002 suggest that learners' scores are below of what is expected at all levels of the schooling system, both in relation to other countries (including other developing countries) and in relation to the expectations of the South African curriculum."* (Taylor Muller & Vinjevold 2003). Similar tests were conducted in June 2005 and I think that the results will have deteriorated as the original results have not initiated improvement plans. The National Education Department introduced a reading programme to address the literacy crisis but schools and educators are not held accountable for how they use the reading programme.

The outline recommended by the Education Department is far too broad as the extracts below display.

High schools: Reading Programme

The Grade 8 and 9 Reading Policy (WCED Circular 159/2002) requires all learners at these levels to read for 20 minutes a day. The policy offers three options for implementation: a dedicated reading period *or* integrated into Languages *or* integrated across the curriculum (WCED Circular 0032/2004).

Reading policy for Grades 8 and 9

In order to establish what the best form of this intervention would be, schools were invited to experiment with reading initiatives in these grades in 2002. The WCED suggested ideas that schools may follow. I include an example: They advised that educators start each language lesson with 10 minutes of reading activities, using different texts each day:

Day 1 and 2: reading own books,

Day 3: reading newspaper articles out to a partner and following this with discussion,

Day 4: reading and comprehension exercises based on a magazine article,

Day 5: reading aloud from an exciting book which the whole class is reading.

The intention of WCED is to implement a daily compulsory 20-30 minutes' reading period. The WCED has instituted that the reading programme should be set up and managed formally. The emphasis should be on reading for enjoyment and to making time

available to help those who are struggling to read. Below I quote the Western Cape Education Department's circular to demonstrate their instructions to school.

"The reading programme should ensure that learners spend at least 100 minutes per week (preferably as 20 minutes per day) reading. This may be achieved

- either by allocating time to a daily reading period which focuses on reading for enjoyment and providing help for those who are struggling to read
- or by ensuring that Learning Areas target reading in the delivery of their learning programmes. This may involve only the Languages, or it may be applied across Learning Areas. For example, 5 Learning Areas per week could each structure an activity that requires 20 minutes' reading" (WCED Circular 159/2002).

This attempt by the Education Department to address literacy will not succeed. Literacy levels will continue to fall unless learners who struggle to read are taught in an organised, systematic, efficient way by knowledgeable educators using a well designed instructional approach. There is no quick fix and the myth that reading improves reading must be challenged as learners struggle specifically because they cannot read. The education department's reading policy implies that literacy levels will improve by implementing a 20 minute reading period a day. The following quotes by Louisa, C. Moats (2004) display that addressing poor literacy levels is a daunting task. "*Teaching to read is a job for an expert.*" "*...learning to read requires considerable knowledge and skill, acquired over several years through focused study and supervised practise.*" "*... learning to read is a complex linguistic achievement.*"

Critical skills must be incorporated into lessons directly, systematically and actively. Classroom instruction must be viewed as the critical factor in preventing reading problems and must be the primary focus for change.

The learners' language proficiency influenced the results of my research as I had assumed that learners were able to form an initial understanding of the text, develop an interpretation, engage in personal reflection and response and demonstrate a critical stance. It was an error to take for granted that the learners possessed these skills.

The initial trials for this research took place in 1999/2000. At the time, learners at this level were not exclusive 'products' of Outcomes Based Education which seems to have abandoned the teaching basic literacy skills in favour of more social approaches to literacy, since building educational theory and practice on the traditional, autonomous view of literacy has undesirable consequences. Yet the results of this research, and the growing body of evidence, clearly display the undesirable consequences and demonstrate that we have abandoned the teaching of basic literacy skills at our peril. By 2005/6, through this research, I became aware of the significant shift in literacy levels as learners enter the secondary school (GET phase) and my initial choices had not envisaged this drop in literacy levels, and therefore, I expected learners to be able to engage with the text effectively. The National failure rate of 60% in Grade Ten (FET phase) supports my assertion that learners are just not coping and do not have the necessary skills to participate in literacy events.

Although the overall results also show that Cloze Procedure may not be the best tool to assess text readability, it provided us with a standardised mechanism to test readability. Using Cloze Procedure to test readability is contentious because it assumes that meaning is inherent in the text, but even though critics view the process as technicist and somewhat flawed, it is a manageable tool for classroom use. I chose to use Cloze Procedure as a readability test because it can be marked efficiently and objectively. In attempting to replace the deleted words, the learner is forced to pay special attention to messages conveyed by the remaining words. In making her word selection, the learner depends on prior knowledge, general understanding of the text or subject of the material, context clues, and knowledge of language.

New Literacy Studies (NLS) theorists reject Cloze Procedure as a measuring tool. They argue that learners must be given numerous opportunities to construct and convey meaning, regardless of the medium being utilized, and therefore educators should use and encourage multiple forms of representation. Unfortunately, the NLS movement does not suggest how classrooms, which place equal value on the ability to utilise different forms of expression, function. In South Africa, where the NLS theory and practices are embraced, as is evident in the National Curriculum Statement, we have not enjoyed the desired results. The National Curriculum Statement (NCS) defines assessment as the process whereby valid and reliable evidence is generated, collected, evaluated and recorded in order to establish whether or not the learners have achieved the required outcomes. It dictates that assessment should take place on an ongoing or continuous bases, using a variety of types, methods, modes and tools in different contexts. The NCS

envisages learners who have access to, and succeed in, lifelong education and training of good quality; demonstrate the ability to think logically and analytically, as well as holistically and laterally; and are able to transfer skills from familiar to unfamiliar situations (NCS Grades 10-12 (Schools), p7). The low levels of literacy in South Africa, as explored earlier, is evidence of its failure. Based on my experience as an educator and the expected levels of reading for the target group learners, it is my contention that these learners should have been able to read the adapted TRC texts and any other similar levels of text.

As previously stated, Street's (2001: 12) argument that the autonomous model ignores literacy as a social practice and insists that literacy is simply a technical and neutral skill, is too monotheoretical. Thus, language is viewed to include not only its grammatical aspects, but also the ability to use language appropriately in different contexts and the ability to organise one's thoughts through language. It attempts to develop the learners' sociolinguistic and discourse competencies in addition to their grammatical competence.

Street claims that literacy empowers individuals to challenge the dominant culture but this is only possible if they proceed past the access and required levels. In order to participate in classroom reading events, learners need to gain access to those events. Access to literacy learning situations involves creating opportunities to interact with text or language in ways appropriate to school-based reading development.

Griffin argues that *empowerment may not occur until individuals proceed past the access and required levels to levels where they are able to set the parameters on what literacy skills are required* (Griffin, P. 1990: 22).

My motivation for using Cloze Procedure as a readability tool was because scoring was objective, it was easy to use and analyse and it uses the text itself for analysis. The learners' ability to identify the missing word was an indication that they comprehended the content of the text. The results of the Cloze Procedure exercises reflect both the difficulty of the text and the readers' abilities and resources to fill in the correct word. While it cannot account for the variety of resources available to different readers, like word recognition skills, interest in the subject, and prior knowledge of the topic (Annette T. Rabin 1988), it determined that these learners were unable to read the text because of their low literacy levels.

The learners' literacy levels made it difficult for them to fill the gapped text. Because of the numerous unfamiliar words, the learners struggled to make sense of the text as it still contained too many words they did not recognise. The learners were not able to draw on the surrounding context to guess the meaning of the missing items. I initially argued that the learners would be able to construct meaning from the available words and complete the text, to achieve *closure* (Roslyn Dixon 1989). They failed to achieve closure as they were unable to comprehend the text. Learners were therefore unable to infer meaning from the context.

Russell postulates that Cloze Procedure measures the reader's ability to make an educated guess. The poor reader's inability to fill the gaps correctly could be because of several factors. Various skill deficiencies may interfere with comprehension, like the learners' inability to decode, lack of comprehension, or their inability to tolerate frustration, to name a few.

Although the Flesch Reading Ease Score and the Flesch-Kincaid Grade Level score indicated that the reading and comprehension level (readability) was suitable for Grade Ten, the learners were not able to perform the task since their language proficiency level was below par. The Cloze Procedure tests generally support the concept that teenage learners are influenced by the language of the text.

To summarise, Cloze Procedure exercises are not always valid measures as language proficiency levels play far too significant a role, as do the learners' level of comprehension. Despite this, Cloze Procedure allowed me to make approximate assessments of individuals' reading levels comparatively with one group. According to Bachman (1985), Cloze Procedure correlated highly with other measures of overall language proficiency, as well as with other tests of reading comprehension. *"Cloze forces the reader to construct at a more conscious level than normal reading, could help to create an awareness of syntax and meaning, and calls for scanning and searching skills often neglected in second language reading"* (Raymond 1988: 91).

Despite the shortcomings of Cloze, it does provide a way of measuring learners' reading skills. Street and the NL approach do not offer any real proposal for how such reading skill can be measured, nor do they offer basic proposals for ensuring that basic literacy skills are achieved.

University of Cape Town

CHAPTER SIX: CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

According to the National Curriculum statement, Grades 10-12, Languages; English First Additional Language, Learning Outcome 2: Reading and Viewing, Learners reading at a proficient level should be able to:

...read and view for understanding and to evaluate critically and respond to a wide range of texts."

...develop proficiency in reading and viewing a wide range of literary and non-literary texts, including visual texts, for information. (Department of Education: 13).

For learners to be able to perform at this level, conditions for learning, specifically class size, need to improve. Teachers, with an average of 35-40 learners in each of their five language classes are unable to assign and respond to the amount of reading they need to do in order to improve, especially when the learners display varied competency for reading or read below the required level as revealed by the University of New South Wales (2004) literacy assessment. This is compounded by the fact that learners are passed to the next grade 'with more time needed', while the system makes no suggestions for how this will be addressed.

Wong Fillmore (1997) explains that teachers can make texts more comprehensible. She suggests that educators have to provide the necessary support that will allow learners to make sense of the text. Learners should be made aware of the way language is used in the text. She suggests that language educators discuss with learners the meaning and

interpretation of sentences and phrases within a text and call to their attention to the fact that the words in the text may have been encountered or used in others settings. She proposes that learners can be assisted to discover the grammatical cues that indicate relationships such as cause and effect, antecedence and consequence, comparisons and contrasts, to name a few.

Well-developed reading and viewing skills are central to successful learning across the curriculum, as well as for full participation in society and the world of work (NCS). Low literacy levels will hamper this process as long as learners struggle with unfamiliar words. I therefore recommend that learners should be taught to use specific cognitive strategies when they encounter barriers to understanding. Some readers acquire these strategies informally, but many others require systematic instruction in comprehension. The data suggests that teaching a combination of reading comprehension techniques is needed. In our classrooms, we, as educators, need to create opportunities for our learners to develop advanced reading skills and initiate a desire to read complex texts. For this to be achieved, each classroom needs to be equipped with a variety of books and reading material. The importance of vocabulary for reading comprehension should not be underplayed. Knowing word meanings helps a reader to comprehend a text containing those words.

Stahl (1999) suggests three approaches to productive vocabulary instruction.

- Teaching learners to derive word meanings from context.
- Teaching word parts such as prefixes, suffixes and roots.

- Teaching words as part of semantic groups.

Intentional vocabulary instruction is therefore imperative. Poor readers will continue to fall behind without intentional instruction to accelerate their learning.

As discussed earlier, a reading programme is policy at schools but we are not reaping the benefits of this programme. Learners are able to do free reading in this time and select their own texts. It is also the ideal time to assist those who are struggling to read. Although this time is set aside for reading, very little is done to ensure its success. Janice Pilgreen (2000) suggests that the following eight factors will lead to success:

- Access to books
- Interesting and provocative reading materials to initiate reading
- A conducive environment
- Encouragement
- Staff training
- Accountability
- Follow-up activities

Although the time is set aside to read, educators and learners are not held accountable for it. Learners should be given opportunities to share what they have read and collaborate with other readers so as to create a reading community in the classroom where reading for pleasure is the norm.

The learners used in this study were unable to read and comprehend the text. Therefore, educators have to develop effective readers who are able to decode the text. These readers are able to link the ideas presented in print to their own experiences. They possess the necessary vocabulary to make sense of the content of the text. They are able to summarise, predict and clarify what they have read and can ask themselves guide questions to enhance understanding.

The primary aim of this study was to investigate the viability and appropriateness of introducing the TRC Report into the classroom. This research was largely about how to adapt or modify the text to ensure that the TRC Report will be readable to 15 year olds. My focus therefore, is to provide evidence on how and why it is readable at this level and how this research can be used as a basis for further such work.

The results of this study do not provide a final answer to the initial question. In fact, the results suggest that the answer to the question may not be a straightforward one. My aim was to modify the text to make it accessible to teenage learners. What I discovered instead was that their reading level was much lower than expected. Abedi (2001) and Stevens (2000) found that tests utilizing a high level of language with specialised terminology requires mental processes that involve abstract analytical thinking. These learners did not have the necessary skills to face the challenge of reading the TRC text. Given these learners' low levels of literacy, and therefore their inability to make meaning, it would seem that it was inappropriate to introduce them to TRC Report. The question that needs to be addressed is whether the learners would have coped if they were

better equipped. I would like to believe that I successfully delved into how and why the TRC report can be read and adapted to suit Grade 10 and Grade 11 First Additional Language learners. It is my contention that with improved reading skills, teenage learners will grapple effectively with texts that meet their required levels. Our focus as educators should be on how we assist learners to reach the required level of reading.

To conclude, an important issue raised in this study is that literacy levels affect assessment. Since the learners' language competency affects all areas of the curriculum, a whole school strategy is necessary to address this problem.

I still maintain that it is imperative for 12-15 year olds to have a better sense of contemporary history, especially of apartheid in their context. My original argument was that the TRC affords an excellent example of such a history, but it is too complex and unreadable for this target group of learners, as was confirmed. Since it is worth using, then it is worth adapting/modifying it to make it more readable. This study can begin to show how the TRC report can be amended for use in the classroom. Even this target group, who struggled with the text, emphatically requested to know more about this period of our history.

Even if the adapted TRC texts could be used, the low literacy levels of the learners would still prevent them from reading meaningfully such adaptations or any other similar levels of text. My argument to adapt or modify the texts, given the low reading levels, simply illustrated how poorly-skilled these readers are and their levels of reading, surprised me.

Since so much reading is necessary for effective learning in the current system, the failure to address the reading problems, the lack of intervention and lack of time to address the problem, is a warning that the situation will deteriorate. The poor state of literacy in the country may be as a result of the Department of Education's apparent acceptance of the theories and practices of NLS approaches, which neglects the development of effective readers. This might even be one of the influences leading to a devaluation of task-focused reading skills development in schooling. Although the aims and research questions went unfulfilled, the significance of my findings about low literacy levels is high and gives further evidence of the serious state of literacy in Western Cape schools and the country at large. Therefore, in conclusion, a concerted effort must be made to ensure that literacy levels are raised. Developing effective readers who are competent to deal with the original TRC text is where the answers must be sought. A point of departure may be restoring a basic skills approach coupled with modernized phonics approaches to literacy enskilling.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Reports:

Truth and Reconciliation Commission of South Africa Report. Volume 1. (1998) Cape Town: TRC Commission (Distributed by Juta and Co Ltd).

Truth and Reconciliation Commission of South Africa Report. Volume 2. (1998) Cape Town: TRC Commission (Distributed by Juta and Co Ltd).

Individual Progress in reading. 1973 The Open University press Prepared by Elizabeth Hunter in collaboration with John Merit. Educational Studies: Post Experience Course and Second Level Course: Reading Dev. Units 12 and 13. The Open University press.

SAMEQ Reading surveys I & II (Southern & Eastern Africa Consortium for Monitoring Education Quality Paris: UNESCO.

MLA Joint International Unesco-Unicef Monitoring Learning Achievement.

Chinupah, V. 2000 With Africa for Africa: Towards Quality Education for All. Pretoria. Department of Education: Education for All: The South African Assessment Report Pretoria: DoE 2000.

Books/Journals:

Abedi, J. (2001) Validity considerations in the assessment of LEP students using standardized achievement tests. Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, Seattle.

Alderson, J. C. (1976) 'The cloze procedure and proficiency in EFL. In J. Oller (Ed) *Issues in language testing research*. 205-217 New York: Newbury House.

Alderson, J. C. & Urquhart, A. H. (1984) (Eds) *Reading in a Foreign Language*. London: Longman.

Allington, R. L. (2002) 'You can't learn from books you can't read.' *Educational Leadership*. 60: 16-19.

- Anders, P. L. and Guzzetti, B. J. (1996) *Literacy instruction in the content areas*. New York: Harcourt Brace.
- Angelil-Carter, S. and Murry, S. (1996) South African Journal of Applied Language Studies. Volume 14, Number 2, Summer 1996.
- Bachman, L. (1985) Performance of cloze tests with fixed ratio and rational deletions. TESOL Quarterly, 19: 535-536.
- Bakhtin, M. (1973) The Problem of Speech Genres. Speech Genres and other late essays (Eds) Caryl Emerson and Michael Holquist. (60-102) Austin: University of Texas.
- Barker, C. and Galasiński (2001) *Cultural Studies and Discourse Analysis: A dialogue on Language and Identity*. London: Sage.
- Barthes, R. (1981) 'The Discourse of History' in S. Bann. *Comparative Criticism*, 3: 7-20.
- Bhatia, V. K. (2004) *Worlds of Written Discourse*. London: Continuum.
- Bloome, D. (1994) *Researching Language and Literacy in Social Context* in Avon OUP and Multilingual Matters: D. Graddel, J. Maybin and B. Stierer (Eds).
- Bormuth, J. R. (1966) 'Readability: A new approach.' In Reading Research Quarterly 1: 19-32.
- Bourne, J. (1996) Contesting Literacies in *Some contemporary themes in literacy research*. Frances Christie & Joseph Foley. New York : Waxmann Munster.
- Bloor, T & Bloor, M. (1995) *The Functional Analysis of English. A Hallidayan Approach*. London: Arnold.
- Brown, P. & Yule, G. (1983) *Discourse Analysis*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Buck, C. (1979) 'Miscues of non-native speakers in English' in K. Goodman (Ed) *Miscue Analysis*. Urbana, Ill.: Eric Clearinghouse on Reading and Communication Skills.
- Campbell, N. (1987) Adapted Literary Texts and the EFL reading programme. ELT Journal. April. Vol.41, No.2.
- Canale and Swaine (1980) 'Theoretical bases of communicative approaches to second language teaching and testing.' Applied Linguistics 1/1: 1-47.

- Canale, J. A. (1994) Linking Language Assessment to Classroom Practices. In R. Rodriguez, N. Ramos, & J. A. Ruiz-Escalante (Eds) *Compendium of Readings in Bilingual Education: Issues and Practices*. Austin, TX: Texas Association for Bilingual Education.
- Celce-Murcia, M. & Olshtain, E. (2000) *Discourse and context in language teaching*. New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Chall, Jeanne Sterlicht (1991) *Should Textbooks Challenge Students?* New York: Teachers College Press.
- Chun, D. (1997) Language, Learning & Technology Vol.1, No.1, July 1997, p60-81.
- Cohen, A. (1980) *Testing language ability in the classroom*. New York: Newbury House.
- Cook, G. (1989) *Discourse*. Oxford: University Press.
- Cook, G. (1989) *Discourse* in 'Language teaching: A Scheme for Teacher Education'. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Cherryholmes Cleo H. (1988) *Power and Criticism: Postructural investigations in education*. New York: Teachers College Press.
- Chomsky, Noam (1965) *Aspects of the theory of syntax*. Cambridge: Massachusetts Institute of Technology Press.
- Chouliaraki, L. and Fairclough, N. (1999) *Discourse in Late Modernity: rethinking critical discourse analysis*. Edinburgh: Edinburgh University Press.
- Cohen, A. (1980) *Testing language ability in the classroom*. New York: Newbury House.
- Coulthard, M. (1985) *An Introduction to Discourse Analysis*. London: Longman. (2nd ed).
- Cummins J. and Corson (2001) "Language interactions in the classroom: from coercive to collaborative relations of power. Chp2 in *Language, Power and Pedagogy: Bilingual children in crossfire*. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.
- Cummis and Swain (1986) *Bilingualism in education*. London: Longman.
- Crystal, D. (1992) *The Cambridge Encyclopedia of Language*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Dale and Chall (1972) cited in Gilliland, *Readability* London: University Press.
- De Beaugrande, R. (1980) *Text, Discourse and Process*. London: Longman.

- De Beaugrande, R. & Dressler, W. (1986) *Introduction to text linguistics*. London: Longman.
- Del Vecchio, A. & Guerrere, M. (1995) *Handbook of English Language Proficiency Tests* New Mexico: Highlands University Albuquerque.
- Dixon, R. (1989) "Assessment Report, Communications Discipline", Douglas College.
- Fairclough, N. (1989) *Language and Power*. London: Longman.
- Fairclough, N. (1992) *Discourse and Social Change*. Cambridge: Polity Press.
- Fairclough, N. (1995) *Critical Discourse Analysis*. London: Longman.
- Fairclough, N. and Wodak, R. (1997) 'Critical Discourse Analysis' In Teun A. van Dijk (Ed) *Discourse as Social interaction*. 258-284 London: Sage.
- Fairclough, N. (2000) 'Discourse, social theory and social research: the discourse of welfare reform. *Journal of Sociolinguistics* 4: 163-195.
- Fairclough, N. (2003) *Analysing Discourse*. London: Routledge.
- Fillmore, L.W. (1997) *Authentic Literature in ESL instruction*. Glenview, IL: Scott Foresman.
- Flanagan, Wendy (1990) (Ed) *Teachers and their Work: History*. Cape Town: UCT.
- Florio-Ruane, S. and Morrel, E. (2004) *Discourse Analysis in Literacy Research Methodologies* (Eds) Duke, N. and Mallette, M. New York: The Guilford Press.
- Fowler, Roger (1985) *Linguistic Criticism*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Gaalswyk, Greg (2001) *Dell Hymes*.
(<http://www.mnsu.edu/emuseum/information/biography/fhgij/hymes>).
- Gee, James Paul (1991) *Social Linguistics and Literacies: Ideology in Discourses*. London: Falmer.
- Gee, James Paul (2000) 'The New Literacy Studies; from "socially situated" to the work of the social' in Barton D., Hamilton, M. and Ivanic, R. *Situated literacies: reading and writing in context*. 180-196. London: Routledge.
- Gee, James Paul (2002) 'Reading language abilities and semiotic resources: "Beyond limited perspectives on reading" in Larson, J. (Ed) *Literacy as snail oil: Beyond the quick fix*. 7-26 New York: Peter Lang.
- Gilliland (1972) *Readability* London: University Press.

- Goodman, K. (1967) "*Reading: a psycholinguistic guessing game*". In F.K. Gollasch (Ed) *Language and Literacy Vol.1: Process, Theory, Research*. London: Routledge.1982.
- Griffin, P. (1990) *Adult Literacy and numeracy competency scales*. Assessment Research Centre, Phillip Institute of Technology, Victoria, Australia.
- Halliday, M. A. K. & Hasan, R. (1976) *Cohesion in English*. London: Longman.
- Halliday, M. A. K. (1978) *Language as Social Semiotic*. London: Edward Arnold.
- Halliday, M. A. K. & Hasan, R. (1985) *Language, Context and Text: Aspects of Language in a Social-semiotic Perspective*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Harrison (1979) Assessing the readability of school texts. In Lunzer & Gardner, *The effective use of reading*. London: Heinemann.
- Harrison and Salinger (1998) (Eds) *Assessing Reading 1: Theory and Practice*, Routledge.
- Harris, Zellig (1951) *Methods in Structural Linguistics*. Chicago: University Press.
- Harris, T. and Hodges, R. (1995) (Eds) *The Literacy Dictionary*. Newark: DE International Reading Association.
- Hoey, M. (1983) *On the Surface of Discourse*. London: Allen and Unwin.
- Hughes, A. (1989) *Testing for language teachers*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Huckin, T. N. (2001) 'Social Approaches 6 Critical Discourse Analysis' in T. Miller (Ed) *Functional Approaches to Written Text*. Washington DC: USIA.
- Hymes, D. (1972) (Ed) *Directions in Sociolinguistics: the ethnography of communication*. New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston.
- Hymes, D. (1972) On communicative competence. In Pride, J. B. and Holmes, J. (Eds) *Sociolinguistics*. Harmondsworth: Penguin.
- Iser, W. (1978) *The act of reading*. London: Routledge.
- Jaworski, A. & Coupland, N. (2000) (Eds) *The Discourse reader*. London: Routledge.
- Johnstone, B. (2002) *Discourse Analysis*. Oxford: Blackwell.
- Kaplan, Robert (1990) 'Critical Discourse Analysis'. Annual review of Applied Linguistics, II.
- Klare, G. R. (1963) *The Measurement of Readability*. Iowa State: University Press.

- Klare, G. R. (1976) 'A second Look at the validity of Readability Formulas.' *Journal of Reading Behaviour*, Vol. 8: 129-152.
- Kress, G. (1985) *Linguistic process in sociocultural practice*. Oxford: University Press.
- Kress, G. (1990) Critical Discourse Analysis. In Grabe, W. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics* 11: 84-99.
- Labov, William (1972) *Language in the Inner City: Black English Vernacular*. Philadelphia: University Press.
- Langhan, D. P. (1993) *The textbook as a source of difficulty in teaching and learning*. Pretoria: Sigma Press.
- Luke, A. (1995) 'Text and Discourse in Education' in M. Apple (Ed): *Review of Research in Education*. Madison: University of Wisconsin.
- Lunzer, E. and Gardner, K. (1979) *The effective use of reading*. London: Heinemann Educational Books.
- Martin, J. R. and Rose, D. (2003) *Working with Discourse: Meaning beyond the clause*. London: Continuum.
- McCarthy, Michael (1992) *Discourse Analysis for Language Teachers*. Cambridge: University Press.
- McCarthy, Michael and Carter, Ronald (1994) *Language as Discourse*. London: Longman.
- Mills, Sara (1997) *Discourse*. London: Routledge.
- Moats, Louisa, C. (2004) *Early Interventions for children with reading Problems*: National Institute of Child Health and Human Development: Washington DC.
- Olson, D. (1977) "From utterance to text: the bias of language in speech and writing". *Harvard Educational Review* 47/3: 257-281.
- Oller, J. (1983) Pros and cons of cloze testing. In J. Oller (Ed) *Issues in language testing research*. Section III. New York: Newbury House.
- Oller, J. W. and Damico, J. S. (1991) "Theoretical considerations in the Assessment of LEP students". In V. Hamayan & J. S. Damico, *Limiting Bias in Assessment of Bilingual Students*. 320-343. Texas: Pro-Ed.
- Parker, I. (1992) *Discourse Dynamics: Critical analysis for social and individual psychology*. London: Longman.

- Parker, I. & the Bolton Discourse Network (1999) *Critical Textwork: An introduction to varieties of discourse and analysis*. London: Open University Press.
- Pennycook, A. (1994) *The cultural Politics of English as an International Language*. London: Longman.
- Pilgreen J. (2000) *The SSR Handbook: How to organize and manage a sustained silent reading Program*. Portsmouth: Heinemann.
- Porter (1976) "Modified cloze procedure: a more valid reading comprehension test". *English Language Teaching Journal* 30.
- Prinsloo, M. (1998) "Changing views on Literacy and the Rise of Literacy Studies". *SAALA Communiqué*, 8-11.
- Rabin, Annette T. (1988) "Determining Difficulty Levels of Texts Written in Languages other than English". In Zakaluk and Samuels, *Readability: Its Past, Present, & Future*. Delaware: International Reading Association.
- Rand Reading Study Group (RRSG) 'Reading for understanding: Towards an R&D programme in reading comprehension. Arlington: New York: Harcourt Brace.
- Raymond P. (1988) 'Cloze procedure in the teaching of reading'. *TESL Canada Journal* 6(1): 91-97.
- Rosenblatt, L. M. (1982) 'The literary transaction: Evocation and response. Theory into Practice. 21: 268-277.
- Russell N. (1978) Viewpoints in Teaching and Learning: How effective is the cloze technique in the measurement of reading comprehension?
- Rye, J. (1982) *Cloze Procedure and the teaching of Reading*. London: Heinemann Educational Books Ltd.
- Salkie, R. (1995) *Text and Discourse Analysis*. London: Routledge.
- Schiffrin, D. (1994) *Approaches to Discourse*. Oxford: Blackwell Publishing.
- Scott, B. and Macdonald-Ross, M. (1995) 'A postal survey of OU students' reading skills. Text and readers programme. Technical report No.2. Britain: Open University Press.
- Sinclair, J. McH. And Coulthard, R. M. (1975) *Towards an analysis of discourse: The English used by teachers and pupils*. London: Oxford University Press.

- Sorrell, A. (1990) Three reading Comprehension strategies: TELLs, story mapping, and QARs. *Academic Therapy* 25 30: 359-368.
- Stahl, S. A. (1999). *Vocabulary Development*. Cambridge, MA: Brookline Books.
- Stanovich, K. & Stanovich, P. (1995) 'How research might inform the debate about early reading acquisition.' *Journal of Research in Reading* 18 (2); 87-105.
- Street, B. (1984) *Literacy in Theory and Practice*. Cambridge: University Press.
- Street, B. (1993) (Ed.) *Cross-cultural approaches to literacy*. Cambridge: University Press.
- Street, B. (1995) *Social Literacies*. New York: Longman.
- Street, B. (2001) *Literacy and Development*. London: Routledge.
- Steinman, L. (2002) 'Considering the Cloze.' In *Canadian Modern Language Review*. Volume 59, No. 2, December 2002.
- Stephens Cheryl (2000) All about readability. (<http://plainlanguage.com/newreadability.html>).
- Strong, R. W., Silver, H. F., Perini, M. J. & Tuculescu, G. M. (2002) 'Reading for academic success: Powerful strategies for struggling, average, and advanced readers, grades 7-12. CA: Corwin Press Inc.
- Stubbs, M. (1980) *Language and Literacy: The Sociolinguistics of reading and writing*. London: Routledge.
- Stubbs, M. (1983) *Discourse Analysis: the sociolinguistic analysis of natural language*. Oxford: Blackwell.
- Swales, J. (1990) *Genre Analysis: English in Academic and Research settings*. Cambridge: University Press.
- Tannen, Schiffrin & Hamilton (1998) (Eds) *Handbook of Discourse Analysis*. Oxford: Blackwell Publishers.
- Taylor, Nick (2001) *Outcomes, Effort and Values in Schooling*. Joint Educational Trust. Wits University: New Millennium Business, Business School.
- Taylor, N., Muller, J. & Vinjevoold, P. (2003) *Getting schools working*. Cape Town: Pearson Education.
- Titscher, S., Meyer, M., Wodak, R. & Vetter, E. (1995) *Methods of Text and Discourse Analysis*. CA: Sage.

- Varaprasad, C. (1997) 'Some Classroom Strategies: Developing Critical Literacy Awareness'. Forum, Sept. Vol35, no. 3.
- Valdés, G. and Figueroa, R. (1994) Bilingualism and testing A special case of bias. Norwood, NJ: Ablex Publishing Corporation.
- Van Dijk, TA. (Ed) (1985) *Handbook of Discourse Analysis*. London: Academic Press, Inc.
- Villa-Vicencio, C. and Verwoerd, W. (2000) *Looking Back, Reaching Forward*. London: Zed Books.
- Wallace Catherine (1988) *Learning to Read in a Multicultural Society: The Social Context of Second Language Literacy*. New York: Prentice Hall.
- Wallace Catherine (1992) *Reading*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Wallace Catherine (1996) Reading with a suspicious eye: Critical reading in the foreign language classroom. In Cook G. & Seidlhofer B. (Eds) *Principle and Practice in Applied Linguistics*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Webb, V. (2002) *Language in South Africa. The role of language in transformation, reconstruction and development*. Amsterdam/New York: John Benjamins.
- Weedon, C. (1987) *Feminist Practice and Post Structural Theory*. Oxford: Basil Blackwell.
- Wetherell, M., Talor, S. and Yates, S. (2001) *Discourse Theory and Practice: A reader*. London: Sage.
- Widdowson, H. G. (1983) *Learning purpose and Language Use*. Oxford: University Press.
- Widdowson, H. G. (1995) *Methods of text and discourse analysis*. Review Article: The Theory and Practice of CDA. Applied Linguistics Journal, 19/1: 136-151.
- Widdowson H. G. (1996) *Linguistics*. Oxford: University Press.
- Wodak, R. (1996) *Disorders of discourse*. London: Longman.
- Wodak, R. and Meyer, M. (Eds) (2000) *Methods of Critical discourse Analysis*. London: Sage.
- Worthy Jo (1998) 'A matter of Interest: Literature that Hooks Reluctant Readers and Keeps Them Reading'. In Arllington, Richard L. (Ed) *Teaching Struggling Readers*. International Reading Association.

Zakaluk B. L. and Samuels S. J. (Eds) (1988) *Readability: Its Past, Present, & Future*.
Delaware: International Reading Association.

University of Cape Town